

A DISTRICT CONFERENCE HELD
AT GARY ON

HISTORY TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS



Held under the auspices of the
Indiana University Extension Division
Friday and Saturday, February 26 and 27, 1915

Monograph

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Conference on history teaching in secondary schools held at Gary, Ind. 1915

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Foreword

AS A part of its public service activities, during the first half of the school year, 1914-15, the Extension Division, in coöperation with the Department of History, extended to the teachers in the public schools of the State a consultation service on teaching problems in history. This work, which was in charge of Assistant Professor Oscar H. Williams, was designed to meet the needs of history teachers who desire direction in the study of methods and in the analysis of the results of their teaching.

As an outgrowth of the work, and as a means of reaching a considerable number of high school teachers and of facilitating the study of the problems of their field by the teachers themselves, the Conference on History Teaching in Secondary Schools was organized. It was held in the Emerson School at Gary on February 26 and 27, 1915. Its purpose was two-fold; first, to consider some of the more vital and concrete problems in the everyday teaching of history in high schools, and secondly, to define standards for measuring the worth of courses of study and methods of teaching history in the schools.

The Gary public schools proved an interesting and appropriate setting for the conference. Contrary to the usual practice in these widely advertised schools, they were open to the visiting teachers on the days of the conference. A considerable number of principals and teachers of history of northern Indiana high schools was present all or most of the two days of the conference.

As an important adjunct to the conference, an exhibit of visualizing apparatus for teaching history was displayed in the library of the Emerson school. The exhibit was collected by Mr. M. J. Thue, of the East Chicago high school, and was under his personal charge during the meeting. It was visited by many of the teachers and principals who were in attendance at the conference.

On the afternoon of Friday, February 26, the conference assembled in the music room of the Emerson school at 2:30

p.m. It was called to order by Principal John W. Rittinger, of Laporte, who presided over the afternoon session. Miss Mayme Brown, of the East Chicago high school, was made secretary of the meeting.

The chairman presented Mr. E. A. Spaulding, principal of the Emerson school, who, in the absence of Superintendent Wirt, of the Gary schools, extended a welcome to the visiting teachers and in a short talk set forth the essential ideas in the Gary plan of school organization.

Professor Samuel B. Harding, of Indiana University, was then introduced, and presented an interesting paper on the European war. He dealt in an intimate manner with the complex situation which, in the last days of July, 1914, led to the eruption which was the beginning of "the greatest war in history." He traced the diplomatic relations which culminated in the catastrophe, and reviewed the military and naval developments of the first six months of the war. His paper was closely followed and cordially applauded. It is a matter of regret that space forbids its publication in this report.

Miss Lena M. Johnson, of the Plymouth high school, was then presented by the chairman, and read a valuable paper on the subject, "Well Directed Reading in History." The paper is printed in full in the body of this report. Mr. Shepherd Leffler followed with a profitable paper on "Constructive Notebook Work in History." Most of the paper appears in the report which follows. Miss Charity Dye, who was for many years teacher of English in Shortridge high school, Indianapolis, then gave a talk on the problem of "Dramatizing History Materials." She presented the claims of dramatic modes of representing history in the schools, and gave especial attention to the possibilities of pageantry work as a means of civic and social education. She made an appeal for more attention to the educative side of pageantry in connection with the approaching centennial of the State. An abstract of her talk is given in this report.

The afternoon session closed with a paper read by Mr. R. D. Chadwick, of the Emerson school, Gary, on "Vitalizing History Work." This paper appears in full in the report below and is a review of the work actually done in the history department of this school. It was one of the most suggestive and profitable papers of the meeting.

The conference adjourned at six o'clock and assembled in

the dining-room of the Emerson school. Here a dinner was served by the domestic science department of the school.

At eight o'clock, the members of the conference met in the auditorium of the school. They were entertained and instructed here by two contrasting types of visualized modes of presenting historical material. The first of these was an illustrated lecture by Professor Samuel B. Harding, on "The Medieval Castle." The second was a demonstration of moving pictures by a representative of the Nicholas Power Company of New York. Professor Harding's lecture was a stimulating account of the development of the medieval castle from the simple forms of the days of the Carolingian rulers to the elaborate fortress of the later Middle Ages. It was profusely illustrated by a series of slides taken from the restorations by Viollet-le-Duc. These slides represent that judicious selection of carefully tested subjects such as should characterize the teaching of history. The demonstration of the moving pictures, while excellent of its kind, served to emphasize some of the dangers which attend this form of visualized instruction in history. Several films were shown, including that of the well-known story of Mary Stuart, and in every case both the staging and dramatic presentation revealed a lack of historical accuracy and genuineness. On the whole, the stories which were presented proved entertaining bits of historical fiction; but as serious representations of historical truth their value is questionable.

The session on Saturday morning was devoted to a consideration of "Standards in History and Civics for Secondary Schools." Professor Harding read the first paper of the morning on "The Nature and Method of History." He dealt with the scientific aspects of the subject of history, its method of analysis and criticism of the documents, its suspension of the judgment, and its mode of arriving at the truth. The paper appears in full in this pamphlet. Mr. D. W. Horton, principal of the Mishawaka high school, followed with a discussion of "Standards of Value for Community Civics." The paper was a careful presentation of the need for civic training and an evaluation of the materials at hand for the purpose. It was abundantly illustrated by concrete examples drawn from the course given in the Mishawaka high school. The paper is given in full below. Professor H. G. Childs, of Indiana University, then gave a talk upon "Social Emphasis in History

Instruction." His paper is presented in abstract. Professor C. O. Davis, of the University of Michigan, presented one of the most valuable papers of the conference on "Standards of Value for High School History." He gave a careful analysis of the aims in history teaching and evaluated the various fields of history for the ends in view. His paper is printed in full. The paper of Assistant Professor O. H. Williams, of Indiana University, on "Standards for Judging Instruction in History," was omitted for want of time but is printed in full below.

The conference was adjourned after a brief general discussion of the papers.

Conference on History Teaching in the Secondary Schools

I.

SOME PRACTICAL TEACHING PROBLEMS IN HISTORY

WELL-DIRECTED READING IN HISTORY

By LENA M. JOHNSON,
Department of History, Plymouth High School.

We teachers of the social sciences—history and civics—find ourselves today in the presence of a colossal problem. To us it is given to transform the thoughtless, heedless, care-free boys and girls, who come to us untaught, into useful, efficient, patriotic citizens, whose services shall bring profit to their community and reflect credit upon the institutions which send them forth. As we face this great task, we cannot eternally project ourselves into the future, to stand beside the finished product of our labors, and glory in his achievement. That is good to do, and it is well to have it done often. It widens the horizon and expands the dome above us, till trivial things assume their right proportions, while the vital forces take their more prominent places in our work.

But now we must stand on this side of our problem and try to see its solution so clearly and so plainly that the finished product, as we see him in imagination, must be the logical answer to the processes by which we have proceeded.

Remembering that the kind of man we are trying to create is the man who can take his place among thoughtful citizens, and be prepared to render his share of efficient service, let us stop a moment to see our way. What are the things he will need as his equipment? What are the impulses, ideals, and powers which we must endeavor, thru our history courses, so deeply to implant, that they shall be his ready tools when his need for them arises? I feel that he will have much use for these things: a fund of information; a spirit of toleration; an independent judgment; a long look ahead; ideals of

liberty and self-government; the ability to use books effectively. And I feel that his study of the social sciences should give him this equipment.

In the face of some of our most radical modern critics, who assert that pupils do not retain one-tenth of one percent of all historical facts studied, I still insist with Prof. McLaughlin that one of the chief aims of historical study is "the acquisition of a valuable store of information." For if the student continues to live among the civilized and thoughtful of the earth, his daily newspaper, his magazine, and even his fiction will ever be testing and reviewing this information, and demanding that he have it, and we all know that he cannot make adequate use of those everyday companions without the illumination which comes from familiarity with the facts to which they so constantly refer. His history study gives him these facts, and with this illumination he is able to understand more clearly the life of which he is a part, to see more surely the tendency of modern movements, and to penetrate more keenly the intricacies of the problems with which he himself is confronted. So let us not be dissuaded from *asking the pupil to know*. It is a profound force in making the child into the citizen. "The common sense of mankind *rightly* adjudges praise to the man having a rich store of information," writes Dr. Hinsdale.

But besides this, I see clearly that our work is only begun when the pupil merely knows his facts. No boy should leave any history course without having developed some big, broad ideas and ideals which come from association with the work of great souls. He must no longer be the narrow, intolerant, bigoted sectarian which we found him at the beginning of his study. The great spirit of Roger Williams must overwhelm him and make him ashamed to be less tolerant. If he has looked with you seriously at the problem facing Louis XIV at the death of Colbert and asked soberly whether Louis did wisely in abandoning the reforms begun and adopting a policy of conquest and glory, if you have asked him to meet in thought many such problems and present a solution with reason, he will come forth with a judgment which will help to prepare him to grapple with his own smaller questions. Not only this, but, thru his efforts to solve the history problems for himself, he will have developed an imagination which will enable him to take the long look ahead, to construct, out in

the future, *his* problem and to see its solution, and this great thing must always be done by the men who think in order that our people may progress. For as a "man's god is no greater than himself," so a nation's advance is no greater than the clear visions of her constructive statesmen.

Then again, the American boy must, thru all his history study, acquire firm and permanent ideas of the significance of political liberty and self-government. He must see the great superiority of his privileges and duties, as an American, over the democrat of Athens, the republican of Rome, or even the parliamentarian of England whose efforts wrung the Magna Charta or the Bill of Rights from an unwilling monarch. The Stars and Stripes must mean to him privilege, and power, and sacred duty.

As aids by which we may help our boy to attain these great ends, I wish to speak of one or two things which seem to me to be of first importance. He must love the subject; but, of course, he will do that. Every normal child *does* love history, unless we have blundered unpardonably in the presentation of it. He loves it because it is so human and so alive. Unless we get in his way, and, by our stupidity, crush the life and soul out of the story he has visualized, there will be no question of his love and interest. Our business here is to help him make alive the story he has read and not to get "under-foot," to add, with delight and enthusiasm, those details which make the picture complete, to keep the work alive and vital, and, of course, to love it ourselves. We must leave no stone unturned whose overturning will bring any inspiration to the boy to do his part of the work well, for so, thru his own efforts, he will have added to the pleasure of the story the greater joy of personal achievement. Then, too, thru doing his work well he will have learned two valuable lessons. He will have learned the use of books, a life-long benefit, and he will have acquired the capacity to assemble material, organize it, and put it forth again. These powers will render him rich service, as long as he is called upon to read and to think.

You will be more patient with me now, while I speak of a single phase of our work which has perplexed us all, more or less, viz., the reading work in history. What is it that we are doing? What are we asking of the thousands of children before us? Is it another of the clever devices by which shrewd teachers waste the time of faithful students and invite care-

less, dishonest work from those who are less faithful? Is this vague reading an easy way to meet college requirements for some extensive work? Is it a method by which we can salve our professional consciences, while we explain to our superiors or outsiders that our classes are doing five hundred pages of collateral reading a year? We wonder. It is *so easy* to do it this way! It is so commonly done with no greater care or direction than to order the five hundred pages to be read! I know a large school in Illinois whose senior class is annually commanded to return a report of five hundred pages read. This is their only direction! It is required because, as the teacher told me, "They will have long lessons to read in the university, and I don't want them swamped." What is the result? You know, of course. They flounder about in a big library long hours, trying to find something readable, then at the last moment before the report is due, rush over the pages of the nearest volume, make a few notes which mean nothing to them nor to their instructor, turn in their report, and sit back relieved, for they are now prepared to meet the demands of university courses. Now if this, or anything similar to it, is our method, our work is worse than wasted, and our crime is not to be lightly condoned.

But why should we ask the child to read? What do we want him to achieve? It seems to me that, college or no college, we want to train him to read, so that he shall like the well-written things that he finds! Then, we want him to learn *how to find* in the books those things which he will like, and, finally, after he has gone to those books, and found the thing he would like to read, we want him to read it with sufficient care to be able to come back to us and tell us what he found. It seems to me that these three things should be ever before us in directing the student's reading: to help him learn what he likes, to show him how to find that in the books, and then to let him tell us what he found. I hear the cry of distress that long-suffering teachers send us as they stand before the mountain of work I have reared for them, but to have taught one hundred or more boys and girls those three vital things in a year is compensation for a vast deal of labor. And that is our problem.

Certain limitations insert themselves between our ideals and the actual results which we are able to achieve. The libraries at our command always contain many histories, but

often very few volumes that our pupils can read with either pleasure or profit. Only a few rare souls in the world of history-makers have learned how to tell the truth without making it as deadly as the proverbial "two-edged sword." There is hope ahead, however, for our greatest living history scholars are now seeing the need of telling the story attractively and well, as well as of telling the truth. We are now putting their books on our shelves, and it gives us new inspiration. Just for a moment, contrast mentally Lodge's account of the Virginia settlement, with its tedious governors and laws and dates, with Eggleston's chapter on the same subject. Eggleston compels you to forget time and place, and makes you live with his people. You rejoice, or hope, or anxiously wait, or you suffer and despair, as their fortunes are good, indifferent, or ill. How gladly you send students to read those stories and how carefully you tell them to omit those terrible chapters in Lodge, when you send them to read the good ones in the same volume! This limitation of uninteresting truth is a serious one, and has wrought much havoc, but happily it is a passing one.

Another limitation which stands in the way of accomplishing our ends is the want of free time in which the instructor may more thoroly and carefully plan and direct the reading. This limitation we fondly, tho perhaps vainly, hope is also a passing one.

Then there are two limitations which I would voluntarily place upon all required reading. The amount of it should be limited, and it should never be assigned without purpose. The reasons for my position are obvious. If the child is to like what he reads—and that is our aim—he must not be repelled by the mass of it. And if he is not to do his work in a slovenly manner, he must see the reason for doing it otherwise, even tho he likes what he reads.

The more attractive side of the question of history reading appears when we look at the possibilities which it affords. Broad reading is the avenue by which the pupil frees himself from a single author's mind. He develops his own judgment of questions, and learns to place his own interpretation on the events of which he reads. He feels more fully the right to have an opinion that has not been recited to him by another, and when he reaches that point he has gone a long way toward effective and intelligent citizenship.

In the larger reading, he finds that subjects are more fully treated, details are included which make the picture alive, characters are described so that they become living, hoping, fearing men, and then come interest in the reading, and love for it. Send the pupils to read Motley's chapter on "The Siege of Leyden" and note the result, if you doubt that interest can be aroused. And to secure a permanent interest in his reading, one which will carry him on after the course in school is finished, is the highest possibility toward which we may aspire. In that would come the partial solution, at least, of one of our greatest social problems. We ask, half in despair, what shall we do with our young people? How shall we keep them out of the streets? What can replace the exhausting social activities which endanger their health and impede their intellectual progress? I cannot say that the child's reading will answer these questions, but I do believe that the right material, wisely introduced to him, will do much toward making him content with less of the out-of-home amusements. . . .

May I add a few suggestions as to the means by which the work in reading may be practically carried on in our classes? To arouse interest, I know of no better beginning than to read to the class those well-written selections which enlarge his knowledge and clarify his picture of the event which is being studied. For example, think what force a good reading of *Spartacus to the Gladiators* will lend to the study of the servile revolt in Rome! Or imagine, if you can, any more vivid or effective way of explaining the evils of the slave trade than by reading *A Cargo of Black Ivory*! We need to remember that our boys and girls often do not even know of the existence of these standard selections of thrilling historic interest. It is our privilege to introduce to them this store of good things.

I would often ask the pupil to prepare, from definitely assigned reading, a short talk which would serve the same purpose as the reading by the teacher, the illumination of some point under consideration. He should stand before the class to present his work. The need for training in public speaking is so pressing that we cannot afford to neglect for the child a single opportunity in this direction.

A less valuable method, but one which reaches a large number of pupils at the same time, is to assign definite reading in several volumes and ask the pupils to return a brief outline of the points discussed. Questions from the outline will readily test the accuracy or the honesty of the work.

The making of brief bibliographies on carefully chosen subjects is a type of work which has value, not only as preparation for college study, but also in training the student to investigate any subject in an effective way. Here he learns to use the mechanics of the library. Accuracy is the fundamental factor in this work, and must be insisted upon. After the bibliographies are made, the students may exchange them. Then, from another's list, the reading is done and the report is made to the class. This I have found interesting and effective work.

Sometimes the student is asked to write a story whose setting is in ancient Egypt or Athens or early Germany. He must read a fair amount, and with good judgment and understanding, or his story will fail utterly in reality. He is quick to perceive the incongruity of modern factors placed in his ancient story, and so is keen to see that his knowledge of details is insufficient to maintain consistency.

If we keep in mind the great aim with which we set out—the making of an efficient citizen—we shall add, as one of the most important of the things required, a study of magazines. Here is the discussion of the topics of which men are talking and thinking, the living lessons, yet to be learned, the baffling problems, yet to be solved. The boy needs to begin to read and think of these things while still a boy; for with this reading and thinking, he is making himself a better companion, because he has a basis for intelligent conversation; he is developing independent judgments of public men, policies, and parties; he is cultivating a liking for good reading along all lines, and he is acquiring the ability to take hold of these great questions with intelligence, and to take his place among the thinkers who are finding their answers.

So, if we see our work as history teachers in its true proportions, we must feel that it is a great thing to do. And the conviction that the thing we do is of vital worth and that the world needs to have it done, and well done, brings us our greatest inspiration. To feel that we have had some part in creating a finer, higher type of citizenship, capable of meeting the complex demands which the coming decade will make upon it, will in itself be our reward. Let us believe with G. Stanley Hall that the "study of the times that tried men's souls tends to form souls capable of enduring trial," and then we shall rightly feel that our opportunities and our influences are as far-reaching as the farthest expansion of the human mind.

CONSTRUCTIVE NOTEBOOK WORK IN HISTORY (Abridged)

By SHEPHERD LEFFLER,

Head of Department of History in South Bend High School.

The problem of the history notebook is a difficult one. Professor Bourne, in his volume on *The Teaching of History and Civics*, says that the use of notebooks is the most difficult of all. Some teachers cut the Gordian knot by dispensing with the history notebook altogether, others use it in moderate measure, while still others place the same emphasis upon the use of the history notebook that is placed on the laboratory notebook by the science teacher. The question arises: What is the value of keeping a history notebook? What should the notebook contain? What are the mechanical processes to be observed in the general makeup of the notebook?

One school of history teachers are most enthusiastic in its praise and insist upon its extensive use. According to this class the value of the notebook is indisputable. Its use is strongly advised, they say, by all committees which have investigated teaching methods and made suggestions for the improvement thereof. If we admit the value and necessity of collateral reading, then the use of the notebook follows as a matter of course, for in no way is it possible to secure permanent results from outside reading other than by having the pupils record outlines, digests, or analyses in their notebooks. Again, it is urged that practice in written work in the condensation of outside reading develops the power of analysis upon the part of the pupil who is forced to extract the main ideas from a reference book. In addition, by collecting certain other data or by arranging or classifying under appropriate heads and subheads certain facts, and by recording his interpretation of certain source materials, the pupil is learning to write history himself. Then, too, they urge that a carefully prepared and arranged notebook will tend to develop in the pupil habits of neatness, order, precision, and thoroughness, so often found lacking in the secondary school pupil.

As to the kind of notebook, it is agreed that it should be one of the loose-leaf variety so that the material may be rearranged or classified at will. The notes should be of two general kinds: first, those of a more formal nature prepared out of class and written in ink; secondly, those of an informal

nature taken down in class and consisting of odds and ends, of bits of information or observations that are brought out during the recitation period. These informal notes should occupy a separate section of the notebook and may be written in either pencil or ink.

In the organization of the notes a uniform system should be followed. The relative importance of different ideas or topics must be indicated. The work may be done by a plan of indenting the topics and subtopics, but a better way is to make use of a regular system of letters and figures. The one most used is to designate the main headings by Roman numerals; those of next importance by capital letters; those of lower rank by Arabic numerals, and then small letters, following with an alternation of numerals and letters as far as necessary. Often the relative importance or proper emphasis may be better shown by underscoring, but there is danger that too much underlining may be indulged in with the result that all emphasis is lost. Every outline, abstract, or exercise in the formal part of the notebook should be accompanied or rather preceded with the exact reference or source of the material as to author, title, edition, volume, and page. By using marginal notebook paper the different page references may be placed in the accompanying margin.

What, then, should this more formal part of the notebook contain? The most zealous would place therein outlines or abstracts of collateral reading in secondary authorities; synopses of brief selections of source material; analyses of the text; notes on outside matter dictated in class; summaries of periods; chronological tables and various kinds of written work, such as brief compositions representing original investigation or thought, or comparisons made by the pupil, from material found in the text or otherwise, or answers to questions based on secondary or source material. Some would go even further and add outline maps or charts or graphic representations prepared by the pupil, also illustrative documents, such as specimen warrants, ballots, and legal forms, and finally newspaper clippings or extracts bearing upon current problems.

After the material has been collected it should be properly arranged and indexed. A table of contents should be drawn up showing the title of each article and the page on which it is to be found.

As to the length or volume of such a notebook there is little guidance as yet. The New York State Board of Education has prepared a rather elaborate history syllabus which the secondary high schools are required to follow. This syllabus requires a notebook containing at least thirty exercises in one case and fifty exercises in another.

Some of the colleges have also specified a certain requirement as to quantity. Thus Harvard requires that the candidate for entrance must present a notebook of fifty pages on each field of history offered for entrance credit. Columbia University asks for five thousand words of notes on the advanced history courses offered for entrance and none at all on the elementary courses. Most of the other colleges, however, including Princeton, Cornell, Chicago, Northwestern, and Indiana, are silent upon the question of notebook requirement. Apparently the colleges and universities have not as yet arrived at any definite conclusions as to the advisability of requiring the presentation of a formal notebook as concrete evidence of the character of history work done in the secondary school.

Such, then, is the plan of a history notebook urged by the most ambitious of its advocates, and it will be readily seen that such an ideal would require a very industrious and zealous instructor to carry it thru. It is one thing to say how a history notebook should be constructed, and it is quite another problem to get a class or several classes to construct it in accordance with that ideal.

Another class of history teachers would solve the notebook problem either by dispensing with it altogether or at most by placing very little emphasis upon it.

Foremost among the recent critics of present methods of teaching history is William McDonald, Professor of American History at Brown University. His critical attitude has been developed by the experience gained from being for several years a member of the College Entrance Examination Board. In an article published in the June, 1914, number of *Education*, he makes a sweeping attack upon collateral reading and by inference this is an attack upon the use of the notebook, since the use of the latter is closely connected with collateral reading. He says that for the last fifteen years the colleges, teachers' associations, and other bodies, including the College Entrance Examination Board, have been making strenuous efforts to carry into effect the recommendations as to methods

advised by the Committee of Seven. "Yet the net result of all this effort is the verdict of the Committee of Review of the College Entrance Examination Board that the examinations in history set by the Board show the largest percentage of failures of any set by that body and that a reconsideration of the history requirement must, apparently, soon be undertaken if a higher percentage of pass marks is not forthcoming," he says.

Other objections are frequently urged against the extensive use of the notebook. It is claimed, for example, that notebook work, far from developing in the student powers of original thinking, critical judgment, and the power of keen analysis, degenerates into a mere routine or mechanical process in which the pupil laboriously copies notes, abstracts, digests, and outlines with the single aim in view of filling so many pages, and finishing as soon as possible what to him is an irksome burden and a "kill-joy." Some pupils spend upon their notebooks an amount of time and labor disproportionate to the value obtained and think they deserve great credit and reward when all they have really done is to copy in a neat, legible hand and with no great exercise of mental power a few of the ideas contained in an outside reference.

Then there is the argument of the overworked history teacher with five or six classes a day and nothing to do every vacant moment but to continue the never-ending, laborious grind of looking over and correcting the notebooks of from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pupils. This dull routine of checking notebooks consumes a vast amount of time and energy that might be much better employed by the teacher gaining fresh knowledge of the subject and thus adding life and richness to the course. The history teacher is expected to read widely, deeply, and continuously; but How, asks the overworked teacher, can this be done when the time is so largely taken up in the dull routine of examining history notebooks, to say nothing of tests, examinations, and other written work?

Moreover, if the teacher is not conscientious and does not honestly look over, correct, and grade the notebooks, the effect is bad upon the pupil, who is quick to detect the slackness of the teacher and soon learns to take advantage of it. The result is careless, superficial work which is worse in its effects upon the pupil than no work at all. It is often a common fault

of young teachers fresh from college to try to introduce the college standards and requirements into the high school with the result that more work is assigned than the student can honestly do or the teacher properly correct.

What, then, are the conclusions of this paper as to the proper use of a history notebook? Personally, I must be frank to confess that it is as yet an unsettled problem with me. While I do not take the extreme view of those who claim that the notebook should be discarded as failing to bring results commensurate with the time and effort expended, neither on the other hand do I agree with those zealous and ambitious teachers who would exalt the notebook to the place of first honor among the methods advocated to advance the teaching of history. I would favor its moderate use. On the one hand, it has its merits. Notwithstanding the sweeping objection to collateral reading referred to above in the article by Professor McDonald, I believe in the value of collateral reading to broaden the view and to supplement the too-often brief treatment in the text. If such collateral reading is offered, then the use of notes follows, for in no other way can we secure a proper check upon that reading.

A notebook may be put to a valuable use by entering such material as will show the continuity or development of a question or institution. Thus we may enter in the notebook for American history certain headings or topics such as tariff, slavery, State sovereignty, territorial growth, nationalism, sectionalism, treaties, Monroe Doctrine, etc., and then under each head we may collect the different phases of those questions as they arise in the course of study. By this method it is possible to get a continuous view of the topic in all its developments.

Quite recently there seems to be a strong movement to dwell at greater length upon current questions and present-day problems. . . . This study of current questions may, I think, be made very instructive and interesting by the use of some high-grade weekly magazine as the *Independent*, *Outlook*, or *Literary Digest*. I have used the *Independent* as a supplementary text in civics with very good results. There is no excuse for a pupil graduating from high school and knowing more about an act of the English Parliament passed three hundred years ago than he does about the recent Immigration bill or the Ship-Purchase bill. Also a student

living in a city in Indiana should know what problems are engaging the people of his own city or State. A pupil should know how the legislature of his own State is attempting to deal with the questions of woman suffrage, State-wide prohibition, capital punishment, direct primary, race-track betting, and labor betterment as well as know the historical background of these questions.

In connection with the above-mentioned current problems the notebook may play an important part. In it may be placed, under appropriate headings of local, State, national, or international affairs, the abstracts, digests, or outlines of articles taken from current magazines. The magazines and some of the newspapers of a conservative type have excellent articles that may be clipped entire and the clippings made a permanent part of the notebook. Thus the notebook may be made the means of gathering together material from many sources and of present-day significance.

On the other hand, caution must be used in the application of the notebook. If we lay too much emphasis upon it and overload the pupil with notebook work there is little to be gained. The teacher should not assign more tasks than it is practical to correct and grade for the pupil will soon learn to take advantage of that fact.

Also, care must be taken that notebook work does not become a mere mechanical routine of copying extracts or making outlines that call for little exercise of the power of critical judgment or historical analysis. It is not uncommon to find that what the average student so dislikes in connection with both English and history courses is the excessive amount of dry notebook work that some teachers appear to delight in introducing into their courses.

I believe, also, that much might be gained if the courses in history were readjusted and greater emphasis placed upon a more limited field such as was suggested in the preliminary recommendation of a committee of the National Education Association. We skim too large a surface. If the field were delimited and a great mass of facts of little or no significance were boldly omitted and more emphasis placed on the larger questions, more would be gained. Too brief a treatment of so many topics fails to leave with the pupil any impression at all unless it is supplemented by extensive collateral reading. But it is out of the question for the high school pupil to do

such extensive outside reading and do the amount of notebook work that would go along with that collateral reading.

Before satisfactory collateral reading and notebook work can be done, there must be available the absolutely necessary library facilities. But how many schools have the requisite library equipment in the way of good, readable, authoritative works in history? How many schools have enough duplicate copies of the best secondary authorities? It is worse than useless to turn a large class or several classes loose on one book or two or three copies of a book. It is a well-grounded excuse of many history teachers that they cannot carry out collateral reference work and notebook work for the lack of the necessary tools of history instruction.

Notebook work might be facilitated, especially as regards its being used as a test for outside reference material in college entrance examinations, if the colleges were able to come to some agreement as to the kind and amount of collateral reading that should be emphasized. As matters now stand there is no such standard. Without exception the colleges make no recommendation as to the kind of collateral reading or notebook work and only in few cases, as Harvard and Columbia, specify any definite amount of collateral reading or extent of notebook work.

It is, then, the conclusion of this paper that the history notebook still remains an unsettled problem. While it should not be entirely dispensed with as one side would advocate, neither should it be overdone as others would emphasize. It has its merits and its disadvantages. To strike the proper balance should be the endeavor of the history instructor.

THE DRAMATIZING OF HISTORY MATERIAL (Abstract)

By CHARITY DYE,

Formerly of Shortridge High School, Indianapolis.

"The dramatizing of history material consists in translating any scene or event belonging to the past or present into the terms of objective reality thru the means of setting, costume, words, action, and symbolism." Since any single element of dramatized material may be considered a unit of pageantry, she spoke of the pageant, the whole, which explains the parts.

School pageantry in Indiana at the present time is highly important. An educative preparation along this line is essen-

tial for the celebration of the Statehood Centennial next year, and the apathy which exists in many schools with reference to the history of Indiana is lamentable. The idea now in the minds of many school authorities that "Something can be done at the last moment to make a fine showing" is unworthy of educators and shows not only a lack of the professional spirit but savors of the element of sensationalism that deprives whatever might be done of its serious educational value. The time element is considered of the utmost importance for the producing of a school pageant, which deals with children who have so little background of experience, comparatively no historical perspective, and are besides busily engaged with the various tasks of the regular school work. She illustrated this point of time by her experience in school pageantry and claimed that a whole year was little enough time for the presentation of a school pageant that would be truly educative to the school children taking part.

A pageant that claims the effort and time of school children should meet the requirements of all pageants in revealing a community or State to all the people therein. "A pageant represents the stream of life belonging to a given situation, and hence is largely a community affair participated in not only by the school children but by their elders and friends joined in a festival of common joys and interests to make memorable an event or place. A pageant makes for democracy as nothing else does in that it creates community respect and sets free the latent forces of the obscure as well as of the gifted, and all together strike a level of appreciation not before existing." The New Harmony Centennial school pageant showed how the historic consciousness can be started in the very smallest children thru drawing, singing, the dance, and pantomime. Older pupils can be given the same drill in the use of books, in the organization of material, and in language work as in any other subject or exercise, so that when the time comes for the parts to be put together there will be an understanding by every child of the main meaning of the occasion.

Pageant material in every community in Indiana is surprisingly abundant and much concerning it can be found in the State reports. The story of the Wabash river can be made as interesting as romance, beginning with geologic times at the divide separating the Wabash from the Maumee and the

St. Mary rivers, then taking the Wabash valley with its primitive forests, its animals, and its fertile lands. Next comes its historic past, beginning with the *coureurs de bois*, followed by the Indian, the fur trader, the missionary, and the famous historic personages under three flags. This brings in the story of Fort Wayne, of Lafayette, of Terre Haute, Vincennes, and New Harmony. In like manner, the National road can be made most interesting. Tho Gary is only nine years old, it can next year celebrate its tenth birthday and the Centennial of Indiana Statehood at the same time in a splendid "Pageant of the Melting-Pot," for Gary is all the while converting the ore into steel and also making American citizens out of her foreign population. There is the spirit of Lake Michigan that called forth the opportunity to use its waters. There is the ore that was brought, and then came the builders who have made the place known as the "apotheosis of the engineer"; parallel with this is the school system that has made a new facing about in public education. As a symbol of this the children might march with their parents, all of them dressed in their native costume, singing their own national airs, and carrying the flags of their own nation, which as they pass "Uncle Sam," they exchange for an American flag, and in the grand "ensemble" all unite in a chorus singing "America."

A letter from Superintendent Study, of Fort Wayne, states that the Fort Wayne schools would take less general history for a year and concentrate on the history of Indiana in educative preparation for the Centennial in 1916. A patriotic citizen of Fort Wayne, Mr. Griswold, began in January, 1914, a history of Fort Wayne which ran thru forty-three installments in the Fort Wayne *Journal* and much of which is now in the scrapbooks of the children and on file in the public library. The Fort Wayne school children celebrate Fort Day every year.

Attention was called to the help given by the History Department and Extension Division of Indiana University thru the "Historical Survey," the lecture bureau, the *Readings from Indiana History*, and the leaflets that it is hoped will be issued to aid the schools of Indiana. It may turn out that the State University will be the clearing-house of information from now on until after the Centennial celebration.

VITALIZING THE HISTORY WORK

By R. D. CHADWICK,

Head of History Department, Emerson School, Gary.

We have found that if the work can be made of social value, the interest of the pupils is enlarged, and the greater the interest, the greater is the incentive to work, and to do better work. If a pupil is led to see that his work will be of value not only to himself but to the other pupils, or that his work will be of value to his parents, and to other men and women that he knows, then his desire to do good work is kindled. How we are doing this in history, civics, and geography is as follows:

For several years a sand-table has been a part of the regular equipment of the history department. On this various assigned students of the two upper grammar grades are assigned to reproduce the topography of some locality which is being studied in history, or geography, or perhaps both. The latter was the case with a recently constructed relief map of a part of western Europe. Those assigned to do it took great pride in doing the work, and their eyes showed their pride when the sand-table was discussed in class. The battlefield of Gettysburg can be made very vivid by showing the various places of interest on that historic field of battle.

In the spring of 1912 when we were using our first sand-map of the Gettysburg battlefield, an interesting incident took place. It shows the possibilities of this simple piece of apparatus in making some parts of history clear and real, and it shows an unsolicited and an impersonal estimate of the value of the results. I took two days to describe the incidents leading up to the battle and the battle itself, basing my talk upon the clear description given in Rhodes' *History of the United States*, Volume IV. The members of each class taking the work sat or stood around the sand-table where they could see it clearly. The day following the completion of the oral description I called upon a little girl near the center of the room to tell the story of the battle. She started out without hesitating at the beginning of the series of events leading up to the battle. Hardly had she begun, when nearly twenty men came into the room and ranged themselves along the front and side. She glanced up, her voice trembled a little, then her eyes sought mine, and she evidently saw a message there, "Do your

best." She did not take her eyes away from mine during the following minutes, perhaps ten; she did not miss an important point in the narration—it was clear to her, and she made it clear to every one in the room. She sat down. The men filed out, but before the door closed, we heard something that sounded like this: "That is the finest history recitation I ever heard." The youngsters heard it, too, so I know that it was not my own thought. We learned later in the day that we were being visited by the superintendents of the city schools of Wisconsin. The parents of this little girl came from Hungary. She is now in my most advanced high school class, and last year as a sophomore she took first prize in the Lake County Inter-Scholastic Oratorical Contest. I remember this above all of my experiences with the sand-table, and never have I been disappointed with the results.

The Panama Canal can be more readily understood and remembered after it has been constructed in sand, and others might be mentioned.

While the sand-table is largely used with the seventh and eighth grade pupils, not so with maps and charts. A few years ago students of the high school classes were assigned special maps, and many fine maps were made. They were too small to be used in the recitation, and could only be preserved by filing them away out of sight. They aided only the pupil who made them. For several years, our high school students have constructed many wall charts and maps illustrating many phases of ancient, medieval, modern, American, and South American history. They last many years as do expensive maps and charts which are published. Usually they are assigned to a student as a special problem, just as a special report is assigned to be written from research work in the library. Many students enjoy drawing, and history can attract their interest in this way—and very profitably. The student who has made a creditable map showing the migrations of the Germans will have a more vivid picture of the situation than the student who has worked out a written report, and it will stay with him longer. We are using maps that were made three years ago, thus proving that the work was of social value.

The idea of making cloth wall maps and charts did not come to me from reading Channing, Hart, and Turner's *Guide*, or other standard works on how to teach history.

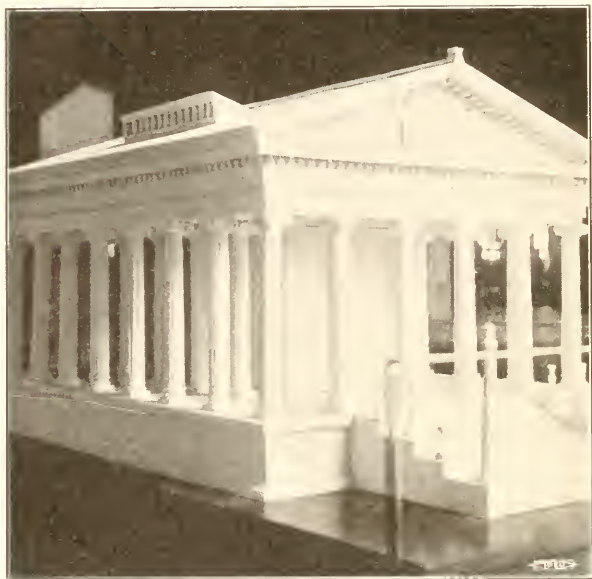
but rather from the fact that before I went to college, and after, too, when at home, during the summer vacation, I was accustomed to use "sign cloth" in my father's retail store. We bought a few yards of sign cloth at eight cents a yard, and tried it out in the history room. Our first map was "Europe at the height of Napoleon's Power." It was a success. Sign cloth will take drawing ink, but has its disadvantages when an erasure is necessary. As to the way a map is made, we find that one of the easiest ways is to mark off the map you wish to reproduce in one inch or one-half inch squares, then figure how many times the small map is capable of being enlarged, the only limitation being the size of the material upon which you are intending to draw the map. Suppose that you find that the large map will be six times as large as the small one, then lay out a rectangle six times as large, and reproduce the squares upon the same enlarged scale. Make the outline with a pencil, then ink it, letter it, and color it. This latter work will be improved with each succeeding map. Ordinary drawing crayons serve excellently for coloring. The card writer's flat pen is invaluable in making wide lines and large letters. Before coloring the map, it will look better if the squares are erased, and this will be an easy task if they were put on lightly with a hard lead pencil.

As I intimated above, sign cloth has its disadvantages. We discovered that paper companies make a cloth used by the printer or bookbinder in plain white and light shades that is in every way the superior of sign cloth. By buying it in the bolt it costs twelve or fifteen cents a yard. Another method is to use a good quality of paper—not too heavy or stiff—and then paste it upon muslin. The map or chart is mounted by strips at top and bottom. A series of maps on the same subject may be mounted at the top only.

If desirable, charts and maps may be traced on tracing-paper and then a blue print or blue prints may be made. By printing upon cloth, a very durable map is the result. A white print is secured by the Vandyke process.

Of the same type of work is the Roman Temple which was constructed in 1912 by a student of Roman history. It is about five feet in length, and stands in the hall opposite the history room. It is our "barber sign." It is also more than that. It is invaluable to show the construction of Greek and Roman temples, and the modifications made by the Romans.

Many pupils of all grades stop and look at it every day, and they have done so for three years. The boy who constructed it saw a model city of Rome on exhibition at Chicago, and upon being asked if he could not reproduce something of the sort, he said that he thought he could, and he did.



TEMPLE OF JUPITER, JUNO, AND MINERVA

The above temple was constructed by a Gary high school boy in 1912, who followed a picture in Botsford's *History of the Ancient World*. The youthful artist in speaking of his work says: "The original has Corinthian capitals. I have Ionic. I have changed the frieze a little, and have left out all figures, such as the horses on the roof and the women on top of the columns on the steps."

Recently a class in modern history studied the history of the rise and decline of the Turkish Empire. Then the class wrote accounts of it, and the three best were selected to appear in the three Gary daily papers. By so doing, their work was of value to the community, and it served as an incentive to get the work well done. Other articles of like type have been written, and printed in the daily papers, history department bulletins, and the student publication.

History work cannot be adequately carried on without numerous written and oral reports. Live subjects are assigned in these classes for oral reports, with the understanding that

if they are of sufficient merit they will be given in the auditorium before four or five hundred pupils, many of whom may not be taking history, but who thereby are benefited by our work, and perhaps interested in it. The report so given has a marked social value. The auditorium is an unquestionable blessing to effective history work.

To be more concrete in regard to the vitalizing influence of the auditorium upon history reports and debates, we will give a few of the subjects which have been discussed by history students before auditorium audiences:

DEBATES—

- Resolved, that Germany was the aggressor in the present war.
(Modern History Class.)
- Resolved, that immigrants should be able to read.
(Ancient History Class.)
- Resolved, that Lee was a greater general than Grant.
(Eighth year U. S. History Class.)
- Resolved, that Indiana should have a new constitution.
(Civics Class.)
- Resolved, that Gary should be made a second-class city.
(Civics Class.)

ORAL REPORTS—

A. From the Modern History classes:

- Growth of the British Empire in South Africa.
- How Japan became a World Power.
- The Balkan War.
- Recent Social Legislation.

B. From the Ancient History Classes:

- The Persian Invasion.
- Architecture of Greece and Rome.
- Home Life of the Ancient Greeks.
- Sports in Athens and Rome.
- Hannibal.

SPECIAL PROGRAMS—

- Washington's Birthday (Eighth grade).
- Lincoln's Birthday (Eighth grade).
- A Newspaper (each pupil in a class gave the news of a department).
- Illustrated Program: The Capitals of the Countries at War.
- Student Council Campaigns.

Studies of local civic concern are of marked immediate value to the community, if they can be diffused among the citizens. They are ultimately of value to the community by

having intelligent citizens as the product of the schools. Where you get both immediate and future results at the same time then the work must be doubly valuable. In connection with the study of modern Europe, one of our classes is working on the problem of municipal betterment. One phase of this is adequate parking facilities. Starting from Gary, this class is studying parks, and will publish its special research reports in a bulletin. Other departments of the school are making their work of intrinsic value to the individual and community, and the history department will not be left out. This is only a beginning of what the history department hopes to do in this practical line of work. Kings and queens may die, but the problems of the American city are going to be increasingly of great importance. This work is of the utmost social value.

During the past three years, there have been disorders, convulsions, and tumult within and among the nations of the world, for example, the Balkan wars, the Mexican situation, and the present European struggle. We have found that the interest in affairs that has resulted from these conditions has turned the attention of the pupil of the upper grades, and the student of the high school, to the newspaper and magazine without any direction by teachers. The interest so kindled should be directed. It should be directed to other subjects than war. It forms the most stimulating basis for studying the causes of war, such as commercial and industrial development, nature of the governments, race jealousies and animosities, and cultural development. In 1912-13 my classes in modern history were anxious to study the past of the Balkan peninsula in order to understand the reason for the alliance against the Turkish Empire. In 1913-14 a like interest was kindled in the history of Mexico, and American relations with the Spanish-American republics. During the autumn of 1914 the study of the past two centuries of Western European history was conducted without effort because of the interest in the Great European War.

Pictures from magazines and newspapers have been mounted and are being preserved. One of the Chicago papers has been issuing a series of double-page maps, full-page portraits, and like interesting data, which we have mounted and will retain in our collection of illustrative materials. A few newspaper headlines, cartoons, and pictures mounted and pre-

served will be very valuable a few years hence, to show that what the manuals describe were real events.

There are various methods of handling contemporary history. Bulletin boards are valuable for displaying noteworthy clippings. One of the seventh-year classes has kept a bulletin board full of clippings classified as follows: foreign news; American news (United States, North and South America); State news; city and county; pictures and cartoons. Another bulletin board is used for editorials and news of especial value to a topic being studied, as, for example, parks.

Special reports from newspapers and magazines have always been a satisfactory method of encouraging magazine and newspaper reading, and directing it into the proper channels. During the year 1914-15, the ancient history class has been devoting each Friday to contemporary history. A weekly digest of ten events is kept in the history notebook. They are arranged as follows: (1) foreign events (three); (2) national (three); (3) local (four). A summary of each event is written together with the reference. Fifteen or twenty minutes of the Friday period is given up to reading notes and an analysis of what was most noteworthy. The rest of the time is taken up with reports upon assigned magazine articles, especially from the *Literary Digest*, the *Outlook*, and the *Independent*. An occasional debate is assigned upon a current topic of interest. The best of the reports and debates are given in the auditorium.

For several months this class subscribed for the *Independent*, paying five cents for each copy. This magazine has published several pamphlets full of good ideas upon the use of magazines in history classes. One of the most helpful articles upon the subject was published in the *Outlook* for August 26, 1914. It has always been my belief that newspapers and magazines try to give the people what they want, and these magazines have correctly come to the conclusion that there is a growing demand for training in the use of the magazine and newspaper. It follows, then, that if we teach a child to prefer the substantial and not the sensational news, that the man and woman of tomorrow will demand and get better and cleaner newspapers and magazines.

American history, civics, modern European history, and economics cannot be adequately studied without constant use of magazines and newspapers. Neither should an ancient his-

tory class be allowed to go thru a year upon a diet from five thousand to eight hundred years of age without some attention to contemporary men and affairs. Suppose the boy or girl leaves school after his year of ancient history, or does not elect history again, he is hopelessly handicapped if he goes out into the world without some instruction in the present and the literature of the present. From what has been said above, it will be seen that we believe that the study of contemporary history is a vitalizing force.

Some time back we discovered that some of the pupils of the grades were carrying around in their pockets soiled packs of cards. The one that we preserved and have on file is the so-called game of "Old Maid." This belonged to a seventh-year youngster. He belonged to a class which met for history work the last hour of the day. Several expedients were used to enliven the period, and the captured pack of cards led to trying out a game of "Explorers." Several games were devised to be played by the pupil when alone, and two or more may play a game similar to the game of "Authors." The tables in the history room are admirable for this sort of activity, and each youngster enjoyed it from the beginning. One day each week is given to the game. Each pupil made his own pack, and on game-day he always brings it in.

The next period that will be vitalized will be the colonial period, 1607 to 1763. The game will be known as the "Game of Colonies." Next will come the "Revolutionary Game," followed by "Statesmen," "Treaties," "Inventions," "New Territories," "Soldiers," and the like. The play instinct can thus be directed and used in mastering much valuable information which every child should know. Our experience tends to show that games, properly subordinated and directed, increase the interest in history work.

The Student Council is an institution which has helped to vitalize our civics work. It is more than an institution of social value. It is a means of studying some of the most important lessons of good government by the laboratory method.

What the Student Council is may be gained by quoting from an article written by a boy for the high school paper in March, 1914:

The object of organizing the Student Council in the Emerson school was not for the purpose of "bossing" or ruling the school, for such a

BALLOT

Emerson School Election, Nov. 4, 1913



DEMOCRAT

CITIZEN

- DEM L. COWAN Senior
- DEM P. KYLE Senior
- DEM R. BLANKENBURG Junior
- DEM I. KLINE Junior
- DEM A. CASPER Sophomore
- DEM M. KYLE Sophomore
- DEM J. KYLE Freshmen
- DEM L. HALLAWAY Freshmen
- DEM R. McLENNAN 8th Grade
- DEM G. JONES 8th Grade

- I SHAW Senior
- M. HECKENLIVELY Senior
- L. STONE Junior
- B. SMITH Junior
- L. KUSS Sophomore
- J. HUTCHINS Sophomore
- B. SZOLD Freshman
- R. ROCKWELL Freshman
- N. HALEY 8th Grade
- C. DAVIS 8th Grade

Sample Ballot

NOTE: In voting a split ticket place a cross thus X in square in front of name of Candidate you wish to vote for.

BALLOT

Emerson School Election, November 3, 1914



PROGRESSIVE

REPUBLICAN

DEMOCRAT

- ☐ SAM KREIDMAN Junior
- ☐ KATE KAHAN Junior
- ☐ LINDA KUSS Junior
- ☐ ESTHER KAHAN Junior
- ☐ ROBERT BOY Sophomore
- ☐ LILLIAN HOLLOWAY Sophomore
- ☐ MONTFORD MARTIN Freshman
- ☐ VERNIE DAVID Freshman
- ☐ FRANK ANDRICKS English Grade
- ☐ ALFRED PENNETT English Grade
- ☐ CHARLES HARRIS Junior
- ☐ LILLIAN NEUMAN Junior
- ☐ MAUDE FITZGERALD Freshman
- ☐ HAROLD ZENOLER English Grade
- ☐ ELIZABETH HARMOND English Grade
- ☐ GRANT WILSON Senior
- ☐ FLORENCE KILBOURN Senior
- ☐ ELLERY CARLTON Junior
- ☐ MAUDE KYLE Junior
- ☐ JOHN KYLE Sophomore
- ☐ RANDOLPH HANCOCK Freshman
- ☐ EVA GUNLAP Freshman
- ☐ JOHN ASSETT English Grade

NOTE: In voting a split ticket place a cross thus X in square opposite name of the one you wish to vote for.



BALLOTS USED IN GARY STUDENT COUNCIL ELECTIONS

thing would be impossible, but the purpose of this body is to look out for the interests of the students. As the constitution of the Student Council states, "the object shall be to centralize the activities of the student body, to increase the school spirit, and to encourage high standards in all phases of school endeavor.

In the first place, the organization of the Student Council gives the students valuable practice in civic training. Voting is a very important act, one which every citizen must do. Many people do not realize its importance when they cast their ballots. Another fact which many people do not realize is that every boy and girl is a citizen. Therefore, it is expedient and necessary that every boy and girl should be taught correctly in regard to voting. A voter should know what candidates he wants to vote for as the best representatives of his idea of the public good. He should inquire about them and find out whether they have been honest and efficient, should learn their arguments, and see what policies they support. He should be thoroly convinced of their qualities himself, and should not depend entirely upon the advice of others.

For these reasons the Student Council campaign and elections give valuable training. Our first election was held in November, 1913, on the same day as the municipal election. The two strong parties in the

city election were the Citizens' and the Democratic. The same parties were represented in the school election. The followers of these respective parties, in the eighth to the twelfth grades, held preliminary meetings, and each class nominated a girl and a boy as candidates. Each party elected a campaign manager, who arranged a program for the campaign, during which the candidates made speeches, telling their views, and giving arguments upon their policies. The election offered still more profitable training. It is doubtful if more than a small percentage of the students in the school knew how to cast a ballot. Ballots were printed by the school press, booths erected, judges appointed, and the election was carried on in an orderly manner. This gave the students the actual experience of casting ballots.

The ten students elected to the Student Council, one boy and one girl from the eighth to the twelfth grades, respectively, then elected officers and adopted a constitution.

The following articles concerning the elections appeared in a Gary paper:

Election of councilmen is taking place at the Emerson school today. Yesterday the candidates made campaign speeches in the auditorium. Bernard Szold, the candidate for the Citizens' party, made one of the strongest speeches of the morning.

"If our side wins, as it is sure to do," he declared, "such matters as have been dangling will be attended to at once. Take, for instance, the matter of our school monograms. Some of our local sporting stores have been selling the emblem for which we have to work so hard in the field and in the gym to anybody and everybody. Shall we who are ready to give our whole strength and energy to fight until we are exhausted and ready to drop for the sake of school victory stand idly by and see our colors being sold to whoever has the price? I have protested; so have many others who know what it means to fight for our gold and gray, but it has been of no avail. If the Citizens' party is elected, we will act at once upon this and similar issues, and you may be assured of a business-like, progressive administration."

The purpose of the Council is to support athletics, and direct social affairs and general matters of school life. The election is being supported by the teacher of civics, and it is a part of the school's general plan of supplementing their regular classes with practical work in which the students will take an active interest. Returns will be made today, and the pupils are as eagerly awaiting results as their elders in the city election. (*Gary Daily Tribune*, November 4, 1913.)

"Republicans," "Democrats," and "Progressives," all attending public school, are lining up their forces for a battle on election day, November 3.

Altho the political struggle will come on the same day as candidates are battling for State and county offices, the school politics has nothing to do with the big affair, but it means as much at the Emerson school, because the councilmen who are to be elected are to administrate many of the affairs of the school.

The Democrats have arranged a campaign platform which has nothing about tariff and such things, and two candidates from the Eighth grade, Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes are seeking votes. From nearly every grade there is a girl candidate for councilman. Following are the Democratic aspirants for office:

Eighth grade.....	John Knotts
Freshman.....	Randolph Hancock and Eva Dunlap
Sophomore	John Kyle
Junior.....	H. Carlton and Madge Kyle
Senior.....	G. Wilson and Flossie Kilbourne

In the platform of these candidates the following planks are incorporated: students' rights, national respect by schools, stronger athletic support, student and faculty coöperation, stronger school organization, interesting auditorium periods, better school functions at a minimum cost.

The Student Council which will be elected from one of the three "parties" will have charge of school entertainments after athletic events, auditorium periods, supervision of invitations to school dances and other affairs, and many other items of school administration.

"Political" meetings are to be held in the auditorium each day this week by the three parties in preparation for election Tuesday. (Gary *Daily Tribune*, October 28, 1914.)

The students themselves had these articles printed, and used them as campaign material. Several candidates had the "campaign-card" sometimes seen in municipal and other local elections printed with a half-tone of the candidate and an invitation to vote for him. Properly supervised, we believe in this student organization as a vitalizing force for civic instruction.

After hearing the arguments of their own candidates given from the auditorium, it was logical that the value of hearing all sides of the political issues at one meeting should occur to both teacher and students. Accordingly, a mass meeting for voters was arranged. The city chairman of the parties in the November 4, 1914, election promised to send able speakers before this meeting. The following appeared upon a small card and upon window cards:

Ordinary voters who have heard tariff and railroad rates, State expenditures, county bond issues, votes for women, new constitutions, and scandals concerning the characters of the candidates bandied around until they cannot tell which party is the worst, are going to have a chance to hear the issues of each party stated in a clear and definite manner, side by side, so they can take their choice under the direction of the schools.

A big mass meeting at the Emerson school auditorium is arranged for next Wednesday evening at which the "Republican," "Democratic,"

HOW TO VOTE

That the citizens of Gary may hear all sides of the issues in the campaign now on, a meeting for the citizens of all political faiths will be held

FRIDAY EVENING, 7:45, OCT. 30, '14

AT THE EMERSON AUDITORIUM

THE PROGRAM:

Why Vote the Democratic Ticket?	George B. Hirschman Crown Point
Why Vote the Socialist Ticket?	Dan White Chicago
Why Vote the Progressive Ticket?	Eric I. Lindh Pastor of First Congregational Church
Why Vote the Republican Ticket?	R. O. Johnson Mayor of Gary

Each speaker will be given thirty minutes for his speech, and each has been asked to give a clear-cut answer to the question.

This meeting is under the auspices of the Student Council of the Emerson School. Its aim is to help the busy citizen of Gary. Women and children are welcome. Remember the time, the place, and the purpose:

VOTE INTELLIGENTLY

CARD ANNOUNCING VOTERS' MEETING

"Progressive," and "Socialist" "parties" will be represented by one speaker each. The speakers will be given thirty minutes in which to present the case of their parties.

Mud slinging will be absolutely barred. The talks will have to do with the party the speaker represents and not with the faults of the others, and it is hoped that in this manner voters who really want to know the issues without ploughing thru tons of muck and mire may find what they are voting for.

The plan was worked out by the Student Council of the Emerson school. This organization is conducted on political lines, officers being elected on the same scale as a municipal election. The council is composed of all the grades from the eighth to the twelfth, one boy and one girl being elected to represent each class. Caucuses are held and on November 3 of each year an election to choose a president and other officers is held.

The Council meets each week and has charge of school affairs in general, supervises invitations to school dances, and provides entertainment

at auditorium periods and other entertainments. Louis Kuss, representing the juniors, is president. His successor and other officers will be elected on November 3.

Prof. R. D. Chadwick, who has been assisting the Council in the arrangements for the voters' meeting next Wednesday, has already received promises of speakers from the Democratic and Socialist parties and the Republican speaker will be secured today. The Progressives will be interviewed today, and asked to send a speaker to the meeting. The public will be welcomed to the meeting. (Gary *Daily Tribune*, October 22, 1914.)

The results of this meeting were all that could be desired. The main floor of the auditorium was filled with an audience of about seven hundred, five hundred of this number being voters. The students had decorated the platform appropriately with the Stars and Stripes. The speakers spoke earnestly and with dignity. At least five hundred voters were able to vote more intelligently than would otherwise have been the case. We believe that the voters will welcome meetings of this kind in the future campaigns. The students felt that they had done something of social value.

If anybody has not the issues of the four parties in the field firmly and clearly fixed in his mind as the election approaches, it is his own fault, for last night at the Emerson school the claims of the four parties were presented side by side so that all might choose intelligently one of them.

The meeting, one of the most unique that was ever held in connection with a heated campaign, was under the auspices of the Student Council of the Emerson school. They threw open the auditorium, and invited every voter in the city to come and hear the claims of all parties presented, and without clouding the main issues.

The auditorium was packed and it is estimated that nearly one thousand voters listened eagerly to all of the exponents of the four parties.

Mayor R. O. Johnson presented the Republican case in a remarkably clear and masterful speech. A storm of applause greeted him after he had finished his address.

Dan White, a Socialist speaker of Chicago, was an eloquent orator and outlined the Socialist views concisely. Rev. Eric I. Lindh told why he believed the Progressive party should receive the people's votes, and Attorney George B. Hershman, of Crown Point, presented the Democratic side in a thoro manner.

Teaching voters how to vote by giving them a chance to know what the parties actually stand for has never before been done by a school, but as it was considered an educative rather than a political meeting it was sanctioned by the school authorities.

R. D. Chadwick, head of the history department, planned the meeting, and it was carried out by the Student Council. (Gary *Daily Tribune*, October 31, 1914).

The following comment of an ex-president of the Council is interesting:

The Student Council of the Emerson school has been organized now for over a year, and it has established beyond a doubt that it is here to stay. The Council has shown in its different activities and duties that it is worth while, and the students of the school realize that it is no longer an experiment, and it is respected accordingly.

It is very important as an instructive organization, since it enables the students, both boys and girls, to learn to vote, which is extremely necessary, for I believe the time is not far off when the girls will cast their ballot for the policy of our government as well as the boys, and there are not many citizens of the United States who can vote intelligently, because of the lack of proper instruction. The Student Council eliminates this, and teaches all students to vote intelligently, as the campaign and election of candidates are carried on in precisely the same manner as in municipal elections.

The object of the Student Council is to work for the welfare of the school and students, and it has accomplished much in spite of all the obstacles that any new organization must surmount, and has done some very fine and successful work.

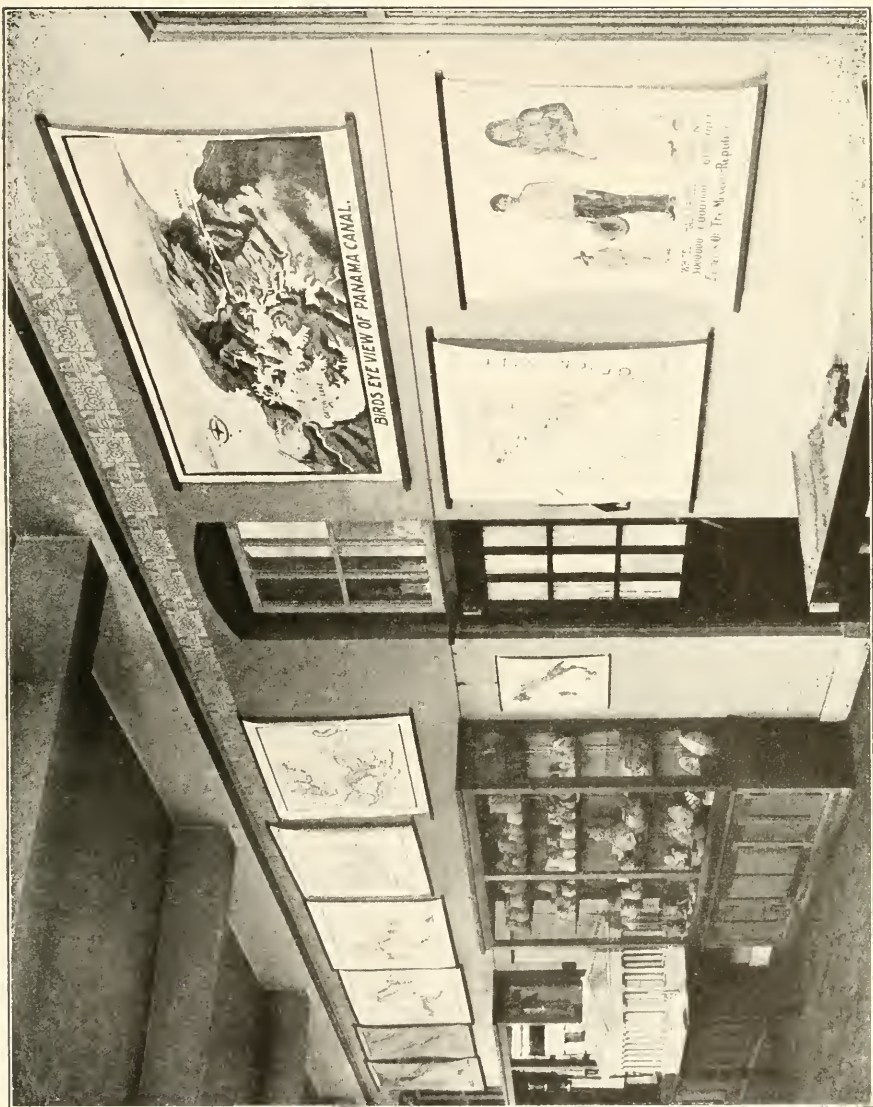
The Student Council takes charge of the auditorium periods, and elects a president and secretary every month for them. This gives the students elected to these positions a fine training, and especially in the controlling of themselves. For example: A boy who may be a little careless in his conduct may be elected to the presidency of an auditorium period. This naturally tends to set an example for other students while he occupies the chair, and the feeling of pride in his honorary position will stay with him after his term of office expires.

A program for the raising of the flag has been successfully carried out, and it will tend to make the students more enthusiastic patriots.

There are ten students elected to the Council, one boy and one girl from the eighth to twelfth grades, inclusive. The Council holds meetings every Tuesday in Room 208 at 11:00 a.m., which are presided over by the president, who is elected by the members. He presides according to a regular order of business.

During the campaign great rivalry exists between the respective candidates, speeches are made and answered, each party has a manager and a platform. The interest of the students is very keen. The students hear each platform expounded, and why they should cast their ballot a certain way. They always hear each candidate, and as the candidates are all well known, no one is sure who are the lucky ones until the votes are counted. Each election room is presided over, as in the city elections, and everything adds to the students' instruction, both as voters and as election officials.

After the votes are counted, and the lucky candidates are congratulated, the old council turns the business over to the new. The old members make little talks, and the new members take their places. Good feeling prevails between the defeated candidates and the newly elected. As one of the former, I can truthfully say that altho the defeat is keenly felt, we feel that we have done our best. The winners were the choice of



VIEW OF A CORRIDOR IN THE EMERSON SCHOOL*

* Several things in this corridor should be noted. The bird's-eye view of the Panama Canal and the chart indicating the elements of the population of Mexico were made by the instructor in painting with the assistance of history students working in his department. In the cabinet is a well-chosen collection of Central American pottery. The Roman temple has already been described. Students transfer the sand-table and maps from hall to classroom as they are needed.

the majority, and we have nothing but the best of wishes toward the success of the lucky candidates and a successful year for the Council.

The members of the Student Council desire to benefit the school and students, and to do good, earnest, conservative work, and, with the coöperation of the faculty, there is not a doubt but that the Council of future years will be an indispensable organization of the (high) school.

L. D. KUSS, '16.

The history room should be a laboratory for the study of history as much as the chemistry room is a laboratory for the study of chemistry. The history room of the Emerson school is equipped with twenty tables, five feet long, and from twenty to thirty inches wide. Thus the first thing that is noticed upon entering the room is that the conventional desk is missing. A table of this size enables students to make charts and maps as well as if they were in a drafting-room. It also gives the greatest flexibility in seating. The front tables easily seat four or five, and the others three, altho as a rule two sit and work at each table. Should one student want a whole table for his chart, the others may easily go to another table. These tables were designed and built in the Emerson shops.

The wall space of the room is usually occupied with illustrative material—maps, charts, pictures, and the like. The rear end of the room is wired so that pictures may be easily hung up. The wall space of the halls near the history room is likewise utilized. Students often stop and examine maps and pictures when they have leisure as they come thru the halls.

The branch of the public library in the Emerson school is near the history room, and this is an invaluable aid in conducting outside readings in source books and the standard manuals. Many standard reference books are placed in the book cabinets of the room. No history room can be without dictionaries of geography and biography, as well as the usual unabridged dictionary, historical, and standard encyclopaedias, and atlases. The pupils of the grades are taught how to use them before they take up the high school courses.

In the halls near the history room are several large cabinets in which historical relics are on display. A gentleman of the city lent us his collection of Indian relics for nearly a year, and from this collection many concrete things concerning Indian life and dress have been taught many children. In another cabinet we have a collection of pottery from Central



HISTORY ROOM, EMERSON SCHOOL (Viewed from Rear)*

*Of the twelve maps or charts shown in this picture nine were made by students. Among these are "The German Empire Since 1871," "Analysis of the Civil War," "The Free and Slave States," "Seventy Years of Territorial Growth," "Europe at the Height of Napoleon's Power," "Mexico," "The Western Theater of the European War," "European War Map, 1914." The cabinets are used for filing mounted pictures (purchased halftones and those clipped from periodicals), the *Congressional Record*, reference books, and manuals. Upon the table with the globe are twelve mounted Babylonian tablets. Cards furnish translations of inscriptions.

America. As a further piece of illustrative material of this sort are the Babylonian tablets which are framed between glass, exposing both sides. Anything of historic value which citizens are willing to lend can thus be taken care of and turned to good use, in the same way in which we preserve our own valuable relics.

Bulletin boards are used in the history room and in the halls for displaying newspaper pictures, cartoons, and articles, post-cards and other pictures unmounted. This convenient means of handling current news is worth while.

In connection with the auditorium we are enabled to use the stereopticon machine for throwing pictures on the screen to illustrate history and geography reports. A program in which the stereopticon or moving-picture machine is used is always enjoyed by the students, as well as being very profitable.

A short quotation from the *History Teachers' Magazine* is pertinent at this point:

We are said to be still far behind France, Germany, and England in our estimate of the value of illustrative material and in our willingness to expend money for the same. Nevertheless, interest can be aroused and in almost any community some of the essential features of an ideal history room can be evolved. Good working desks where the pupils can draw maps, work out the interpretation of pictures, or solve some of the problems offered by source material, directly under the teacher's eye, are a first desideratum. Materials and tools for drawing, colored crayons, and suitable paper for map work, paste pots and brushes, scissors, heavy cardboard, assorted pieces of wood, manila paper, are some of the homely but useful articles in the *history workshop*. Maps, charts, pictures, pieces of statuary, and models are to be acquired according to the means at command. . . . A good lantern, plus a projectoscope for the use of post-cards and chance pictures, is certainly most desirable. The educational value of the lantern exhibit is perhaps not equal to that of pictures and models, but it adds a large and vital element to the interest and enjoyment of a class. It should be borne in mind that, while to entertain or to give "desultory information" is a legitimate purpose in the use of illustrative material, it is always decidedly a secondary one, and the fundamental purposes are: (1) to add definite and concrete knowledge to the pupil's store of historical information; (2) to awaken that lively historical curiosity which stimulates to independent reading and study without the imminent goad of the teacher's injunctions or the whip and spur of the periodical report card sent home to trouble parents. All illustrative material and equipment for the history rooms should be evaluated on this basis and acquired in the sequence suggested by these



HISTORY ROOM, EMERSON SCHOOL (Viewed from Front)*

* The rear wall of the history room is wired for convenient hanging of illustrative material. The maps and pictures have been taken from newspapers and magazines. Beneath are "Instructions to Voters"; two sample referendum ballots; sample State, county, township, city and school ballots; the "How to Vote" window-card with which the October (1914) voters' meeting was advertised. The convenient arrangement of these maps, pictures, and placards greatly increases their usefulness. The seventh and eighth grade pupils who often come into this room become interested in Europe as a background for American history and geography.

ends. ("The Use of Illustrative Material in Secondary Schools," by Maud Hamilton, of the Wisconsin High School of the University of Wisconsin, in *History Teachers' Magazine*, March, 1914.)

We like the idea of calling the history room a "workshop." We believe that all illustrative materials should aid in the main object in teaching history, and not become an end in themselves. Our experience is that there is too little use of such expedients for enlivening history work rather than too much. On this point one of our foremost educators says:

Too many maps, even large ones from the government, too incessant reference to geography, and especially too many pictures, lantern slides, perhaps games with history cards, it seems to me, some authorities to the contrary notwithstanding, we can hardly have. (G. Stanley Hall, *Educational Problems*, II, p. 293.)

We believe the equipment for vital history teaching includes more than just a room where pupils come to recite and hear lectures. Historical materials should not be confined to one recitation room. The walls of the recitation room should be used, and also the walls in the halls adjoining the history room. Special reports, debates, and the like should be heard not only in the classroom, but also in the auditorium or assembly room. Books should be used in the history room, and in the library as well.



VIEW OF A CORRIDOR IN THE EMERSON SCHOOL*

* This view of a corridor shows how bulletin boards are used for posting editorials and newspaper clippings of all sorts, typewritten extracts from magazine articles, etc. On one board is a "Seventh Grade Newspaper," which contains clippings classified as foreign, American, and local news, and cartoons and pictures. The cabinet houses private collections of relics, which are lent to the school for certain periods of time. The large printed and lithographed maps are hung here when there is space and when they are not needed elsewhere.

II.

STANDARDS IN HISTORY AND CIVICS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE NATURE AND METHOD OF HISTORY

By SAMUEL B. HARDING,
Professor of European History in Indiana University.

"It were far better, as things now stand," says Professor Dicey in his brilliant book on *The Law of the Constitution*, "to be charged with heresy than to fall under the suspicion of lacking historical-mindedness." The high popular appreciation of the subject which is implied in this saying is flattering to the professional historian, but doubts intrude. Our colleagues love to cite to us on occasion that dictum of Sainte Beuve that "History is in great part a set of fables which people have agreed to believe in"; and we are regaled also with the story of the great Whig leader who, when retired from politics, called for something to read—"anything but history," said he, "for history must be false." Lack of historical-mindedness may be an intellectual crime, but a true appreciation of the nature of history and of its methods,—still more, a constant and correct application of these in the discussion of problems of current politics,—is the rarest of virtues, and one not always displayed by professional historians themselves. A discussion, therefore, of the nature of this subject, and the materials and processes of the historical student, may not be altogether impertinent. Let it be understood at the outset, however, that I have little to offer you of my own. This whole paper may be described as merely a rehash of principles laid down in the well-known manuals of Bernheim, of Langlois and Seignobos, and of other writers on historical methodology.

First, then, as to the nature of history. Here, I think, is the great stumbling-block, not only for the laity but for the old-fashioned historians as well. With due humility I would assert that all the definitions which make history a "record" or "narrative" of events are fundamentally wrong. They direct attention not to the content but to the vehicle of the subject;

to the outer husk and not to the inner meat. This, I contend, is by no means an unessential matter, for it colors the whole point of view. The decision of this point determines whether history is to be accounted a branch of literature or a science; whether artistry of presentation or the veracity of the facts presented is to be reckoned the main thing. So capable a historian as Mr. Rhodes has shown himself to be in his *History of the United States from 1850*, errs on this point when he comes to set down the qualities which make the great historian; and with him err the late Charles Francis Adams, president of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and a host of lesser lights. In their view Herodotus, Thucydides, and Tacitus are still the unsurpassed masters, because of the charm of their presentation and the vigor of their style. Despite the vast increase of historical knowledge,—despite the sharpening of the historian's tools, the perfecting of his methods, and the enormously greater skill displayed in critical processes,—the modern historian is held less worthy than the ancient, on the ground of inferiority in the art of presenting his subject. I confess that, to me, this view seems most absurd. The zoölogist of today does not value Pliny or Buffon above modern writers on account of a possibly greater charm of style; nor are Marco Polo and Sir John Mandeville esteemed better guides than more recent travelers to the geography of Asia, because of the naïve charm of their narratives. History is a body of knowledge, and literary considerations have the same weight, and no greater, in estimating the value of works dealing with it as is accorded to those relating to mathematics, astronomy, and the other sciences.

Pray, however, do not misunderstand me. No one will condemn more readily than I the slovenly writer who, thru carelessness, pedantic affectation, or ignorance of his mother tongue produces an unreadable book, no matter with what field of knowledge it is concerned. Perhaps more than on most subjects, works on history, because of their concern with the facts of man's life in society, can and ought to be made easily and pleasantly readable, not only for the scholar but for the general public also. And this union of accurate scholarship with artistic skill of presentation is by no means unknown among historians. Parkman possessed in a high degree both qualities; Dean Milman and John Richard Green are cases in point; and Macaulay, tho at times biased by political preju-

dices, and inaccurate from too much dependence on his truly marvelous memory, was a shining example of the combination of vast historical erudition with a captivating style. The point which I wish to make is merely this: that style can save no man, and (in the words of Professor Masson, the author of the monumental life of Milton), "History without accuracy is a sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal." It is for this reason that Hume, Rollin, and Ridpath are numbered among the historically damned; that Froude, Thierry, and Fiske wander in the limbo of the uncondemned yet unredeemed; and that even such masters as Freeman, Ranke, Fustel de Coulanges, and Taine, their works battered and riddled by criticism, undergo purgation for their faults of method and their errors of application.

But I must turn to the positive consideration of my subject. M. Langlois, part author of a brilliant manual of historical method, says: "The peculiarity of historical facts is this, that they are known indirectly by the help of their traces. Historical knowledge is essentially indirect knowledge." In other sciences the facts are directly observed, and the experiment may be repeated *ad libitum*. Even where the scientist uses the observations of others, these are made by trained observers and they can be repeated at need if suspected of error. The observations which the historian must use, on the other hand, are rarely made by competent persons, or according to any systematic plan. They usually come to him second or third hand, or are the random recollections of bystander or participant set down haphazard, without much bearing on the fact to be elicited, and often not committed to writing till time has dimmed the memory of what actually was done or observed. It is—again I refer to Langlois—as tho a chemist were forced to glean his knowledge of a series of experiments from the chance observations of the laboratory janitor, narrated weeks after the event. The historian can rarely interrogate the fact itself; he can only know it from the imperfect, often mendacious, usually erroneous record which has come down to him. "No documents, no history" is the unvarying rule,—interpreting the word document to mean, in the widest sense, any trace left by the fact, whether material remain, oral tradition, or written or pictorial record. New documents turning up may at any moment reclaim for history an epoch or field of human activity before unknown. To cite but one

example, it was thru the discovery and interpretation of the cuneiform tablets of Assyria and Babylonia that there was made known a field of history of whose existence indeed we were before aware, but whose outlines and features were shrouded in the darkness of documentary poverty.

To the historical investigator the documents are everything. This is so, however, not in the sense of constituting an end in themselves, for they are merely the starting point—the only possible starting point—in the search for historical truth. “No documents, no history”; but this saying by no means implies that the document at once and of itself yields up historical truth. Of all stubborn, intractable things, the document can on occasion show itself the most stubborn, the most intractable! Fustel de Coulanges, who in some respects may be considered the founder of the modern scientific school of French historians, was fond of characterizing history as “the most difficult of sciences.” Perhaps there is exaggeration here; we are all prone to magnify our difficulties and to minimize those of our neighbors. But the impression is so widespread that history is a subject which requires no special skill on the part of its votaries—a subject to which any person of moderately liberal culture may turn with good chance of success, in case he but know how to write well—that I am tempted to set down somewhat at length the processes to which the document must be subjected before it will yield up its content of truth.

Assume that with bibliography, catalog, index, and table of contents our document has been hunted to its lair in archives or repository; assume also that it is deciphered, the true text established, and the first formal work of external criticism performed. These processes, tho often carried on by the interpreting historian, may well be left to the philologist or other critical scholar. Even so, much remains to be done before pen can be put to paper in the way of narrative or exposition.

First comes the critical investigation of authorship. By whom, and where, and when, was the document composed? It may be a forgery, as are the well known Forged Decretals and Donation of Constantine, and so many others of the documents of the Middle Ages. So late as 1895 there was published in London by a reputable firm a work entitled *The Journal of a Spy in Paris During the Reign of Terror*, which

purported to have been written in 1794; but this was soon shown, from a study of its contents, to be an arrant forgery. Again, even if our document is genuine, its author may have borrowed his information, without so stating, from another source. Gordon's *History of the American Revolution*, which was long accepted as "the most reliable [contemporary] history of the Revolution from a British pen," was shown a few years ago to be an impudent plagiarism, copied page after page from the English *Annual Register*, and possessing no authority as an independent observation of the events. In modern history, where the number of firsthand documents of proved authenticity is so great, work of this sort is less frequently needed; but for ancient and medieval history the working out of the affiliation of sources is an important part of the historian's preliminary labor.

For all periods the document must be localized as to time and place. A document which cannot be dated with more or less exactness is comparatively valueless. In Madison's journal of the debates in the Federal convention of 1787 is given a draft for a constitution, marvelously like the plan eventually adopted, which purports to be the one introduced by Charles Pinckney of South Carolina. If the document is actually of the date given it, the chief credit for our Federal constitution must be ascribed to Pinckney. In the record of the proceedings of the convention, however, Pinckney's plan is practically ignored, and the discussion is based entirely on other drafts submitted. The presumptive evidence afforded by this fact is strengthened by what we now know of the history of the plan recorded by Madison. Madison for some reason did not copy out Pinckney's plan at the time of its introduction, and did not secure a copy of it until 1819. In that year the official journal of the convention was published, and it contained Pinckney's plan as supplied to the editor of the journal by the family. This Madison at that time included in his notes without examination. The draft in Madison's journal, then, instead of being a contemporaneous copy, dates from a period thirty years later. It seems, moreover, to have been written out from memory, and is largely influenced by the constitution actually adopted. As evidence of what Pinckney's plan was in 1787, the document possesses no value; and any claim for Pinckney's influence on the constitution, based on this document, is worthless.

When we have our document localized in time and place, and know the personality of its author, we must still make sure that our interpretation of its language is the one its author meant it to bear. Where documents are few and in tongues no longer living, a great deal of emphasis needs be placed on this phase of the historian's task. Much of the preëminence which Fustel de Coulanges enjoyed among students devoting themselves to the early Middle Ages was due to the care and conscientiousness with which he went thru the extant documents from the fourth to the ninth centuries, weighing without preconceived theory the force of word and phrase, and interpreting them in the light of the context, and of the usage of the author's time, place, and individual habit. When we read in Tacitus's description of the early Germans, *Arva per annos mutant*, we easily translate, "Each year they shift the fields." But what are we to understand by "fields"? and what by "shifting"? Is this a mere field rotation, the community leading a settled life? or is there annual migration of the community as a whole? Do we have individual, or communal ownership of land? or something which can scarcely as yet be called "ownership" at all? Is an aristocratic or a democratic régime implied in the arrangement? Much, it will be seen—in fact the determination of practically the whole trend of medieval popular development, both for the Continent and for England—hinges upon the interpretation of these words and their context. In view of the uncertainty of the interpretation, it is not surprising that for a generation or more historians have ranged themselves in rival schools, under the names of Romanists and Germanists.

For modern history, where the student suffers not from a paucity but a plethora of documents, and where the linguistic difficulties are less, the interpretative criticism, tho still important, is less vitally so. The criticism of the good faith and accuracy of the author, on the other hand, loses no whit of its importance. It is comparatively easy, in most modern documents, to make out what the author meant to say; but it is less easy always to determine whether what he says is true. Every separate statement must be examined with respect to good faith and accuracy. The author may have had personal, party, class, or national ends to further, by concealing or distorting the truth. The need of such criticism in the case of documents dealing with the causes and progress

of the present great European war is especially noteworthy. Again, who today would accept unquestioningly the statements of a Republican newspaper concerning the aims and policies of the Democratic party, or an account by either Protestant or Catholic divine of the beliefs and practices of his opponents? The monkish chroniclers of the Middle Ages inevitably portrayed men and events from the monkish standpoint. Vanity, too, a desire to magnify one's own exploits, may enter as a distorting factor,—as in the memoirs of the famous Cardinal De Retz, and the boasts of King Charles IX, infamously false, of having organized the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. Allowance also must be made for literary artifice, for the desire to please the public, and for official formulas. The phrase “servant of the servants of God,” found in most papal bulls, does not necessarily convey an idea of special humility on the part of the Pope using it; nor, on the other hand, should the formulas in Carolingian documents, filched from Roman imperial chancelleries, be allowed to deck out that mock empire with the attributes of departed glory.

Criticism for accuracy is a different matter from that for good faith. Here we need inquire whether the author's statements suffer from hallucination or prejudice; whether he was really in a position to know the facts which he relates; whether he was attentive to them, or thru lack of interest or distraction (as thru need for action on a field of battle) he may have observed inaccurately; whether, above all, he wrote down his observations at the time or some years after the fact. Memoirs written after a number of years are responsible for the introduction into our histories of many errors. To this source, in large part, are due the conflicting claims as to the authorship of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. To a similar defect of memory was due the claim, advanced by Walt Whitman's friends, that *Leaves of Grass* was composed prior to the poet's reading of Emerson's works, when Whitman himself, before the impairment of his mind in later life, had expressly confessed to Emerson's influence. To all the foregoing causes of error must be added that which comes from a constitutional incapacity for accuracy—a defect of mental constitution analogous to color-blindness, which from one of its most noted victims has been styled “Froude's disease.” This eminent writer, tho conscientious and industrious to a high degree—tho convinced of the necessity of basing history on documents,

and aware of the utility of criticism—was unable to treat any subject with more than an approach to accuracy. The classical example of his defect is the following, from his account of Adelaide, Australia, a city which he had visited personally: "We saw below us," he writes, "in a basin with a river winding thru it, a city of 150,000 inhabitants, none of whom had ever known or will ever know one moment's anxiety as to the recurring regularity of his three meals a day." The facts, as unctuously pointed out by Froude's critics, are these: Adelaide is built on an eminence, not in a basin; there is no river running thru it; the population when Froude visited it did not exceed 75,000 persons; and at that very time it was suffering from a famine! This instance can be paralleled—not quite so neatly, perhaps, but still in all that affects the principle—by many cases among authors of documents as well as secondary writers. The reality of the defect can scarcely be doubted by anyone who has wrestled with an honest but incapable witness; nor, I think, will teachers of experience need much argument to convince them that an incapacity for accuracy, in a certain class of minds, is a mournful reality.

I have sketched at such length the critical processes to which the scientific historian must submit his materials because of an impression which prevails—founded, it must be confessed, upon the too common habit of some historians—that all that is necessary, when you find a statement with respect to a particular fact, especially if the statement is in a contemporary source, is to transfer it unquestioningly to your narrative. In reality, however, the true historical student will accept the statement only after he has tested and tried it for error and bad faith. Then, and then only, may he properly proceed to consider the relation of that particular statement to others, derived from other sources, and bearing on the same fact or event. It must not be forgotten that the testimony of one witness, even of unimpeachable veracity, is not enough to establish more than the probability of the fact. Corroborative testimony, drawn from other observations, is needed before the fact can be accepted as conclusively proved. Often such corroborative testimony will be wholly wanting; often the corroboration will be only partial; frequently tested statements will be completely at variance and flatly contradictory. May the historian in the latter case accept the testimony which agrees with preconceived theory and reject that

which contradicts? This, in brief, is what John Fiske, that prince of historical popularizers, was wont to do; this, for example, was his method of dealing with the alleged 1497 voyage of Americus Vesputius. Such procedure, tho venial perhaps in the popularizer, is inexcusable in the scholar. The true course is that indicated by Justin Winsor, himself easily first among critical writers on early American history. "Historical truth," says he, "is reached by balancing everything, and not by assimilating that which easily suits." Even so we must be on our guard. If one witness testifies that two and two make four, and another that two and two make five, we may not split the difference and say the sum is four and a half. One witness is right and the other is wrong. If we can conclusively or with a fair degree of probability say which is right, well and good. If not, we can only point out the conflict, and leave the question in the uncertainty which must inevitably, thru lack of decisive evidence, attach to so much of our historical knowledge.

There is one process, however, which in the hands of the skilled historian will often avail to settle conflicts in statements and clear up obscurity. This is what has been styled constructive reasoning. On its negative side this gives us the "argument from silence," in accordance with which we infer, from the absence of statements where we might legitimately expect them, the nonexistence of the fact. On its positive side constructive reasoning gives us the "argument from analogy," likewise legitimate when properly used; and the argument from the harmony of the facts. The latter, perhaps, constitutes the most frequent and effective application of reason to the final determination of fact. A train of events, the life of a man, the body of usages which we call an institution,—each constitutes a whole of which the parts are interrelated. Every fact definitely and conclusively established, no matter how trivial or unmeaning it may seem, can rightly be made a test with respect to other facts of the same connection. The question of whether the English position at the battle of Hastings was or was not defended by a palisade or fixed defense of some sort, seems quite disproportionate to the amount of ink which was shed over it by the partisans of Mr. Freeman and his critic, Mr. Round. But on that question hinges our whole conception of that battle, so momentous in English history; on it, too, depends in large part Freeman's vaunted reputation

for accuracy. The main outlines of history, doubtless, are pretty thoroly established; but many of the details—which, like the warm flesh clothing the human frame, give expression and character to our persons—remain to be elicited. The multiplication, therefore, of available historical materials—the unceasing flood of regesta, calendars of state papers, reports of historical societies, local histories, and historical dissertations—a flood which so dismays the soul of the litterateur—brings no regret to the historical scholar. Each fact ascertained is like a new piece fitted into one of those sectional picture puzzles. It not only contributes its part to the representation of the whole, but it enables us to fit in other blocks, the meaning of which before was in doubt.

In looking back over this fragmentary discussion it occurs to me that the main impression left upon your minds may be that Sainte Beuve's ironical description of history, as "a fable agreed upon," may after all be right. So far as history is not merely a method but a body of fact, the impression may not be wholly unwarranted. Certainly the facts believed by the public are often doubtful, and long after the historian has exploded myth and legend they linger (to his disgust) in popular narrative and school textbook. So far as concerns the scientific historian, however, this uncertainty as to the facts exists only in spite of his efforts and not because of any easy credulity on his part. His attitude is that of methodical doubt; "the historian," says Seignobos, "ought to distrust *a priori* every statement of an author." It is only the unscientific historian who presents surmises as facts, and states as definitely proved that which at best is only probable. The proper attitude is that indicated by Rénan, in the preface to one of his books. "Every phrase," said he, "must be accompanied by a 'perhaps.' I believe I have made a sufficient use of the word, but if one finds a lack of them, just imagine the margins strewn to profusion with it; you will then have the measure of my exact thought."

If history can give us as proved fact only the general outlines of events, with here and there some sharp peak of ascertained detail jutting island-like above the surrounding cloud of doubt, of what value shall we account it as a study? Two lines of answer suggest themselves. History as method, I believe, constitutes the best means (I use the superlative advisedly) of any subject in school or college curricula for

training the judgment to deal with the controverted questions of modern political and social life. And altogether aside from the training which it affords, there are arguments for history drawn from its content. Culture, if I may so phrase it, is a matter of four dimensions. Travel, geography, descriptive science, supply the element of breadth; philosophy and analytical science, including history as a tracing of the laws of phenomena and institutions, give depth or height. The elusive fourth dimension of inspiration is furnished by music, literature, sculpture, painting,—by art, in fact, of all sorts; while the dimension of length, of chronological continuity, is afforded by history in its descriptive aspect. Here belongs history as a pageant, the reconstruction of the past. As on some fixed point we take our stand and see the majestic sweep of man's career we behold, to quote Bagehot, "the wonderful series going far back to the times of the old patriarchs with their flocks and herds, the keen-eyed Greek, the stately Roman, the watching Jew, the uncouth Goth, the horrid Hun, the settled picture of the unchanging East, the restless shifting of the rapid West, the rise of the cold and classical civilization, its fall, the rough impetuous Middle Ages, the vague warm picture of ourselves and home." Details doubtless are blurred; whole sections indeed are blotted out by lack of documents; and the old dream of following back the stream to man's most primitive age must, so far as accurate knowledge goes, be abandoned. Forever the beginning and the end of the series must remain shrouded in mystery. The mere historian can never attain to that completeness of knowledge professed by the early Christian writer, Lactantius, who says, "We who are instructed in the science of truth by the Holy Scriptures know the beginning of the world and its end." But much remains,—enough still to justify the dictum of Lord Bacon that "Histories make men wise." And if this be true of *histories*, the finished product—the books in which are embodied but the net results of the historian's labor,—to how much greater wisdom and culture must *History* conduce, itself both method and result—the science, in short, of man in his social relations as established by the study of documents?

THE SOCIAL EMPHASIS IN HISTORY INSTRUCTION (Abstract)

By H. G. CHILDS,

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I. The *specific values* of a subject are dependent upon: (1) the nature and content of the subject as related to human life and activities; (2) the specific content of books and material available for study; (3) the excellence of the teaching force with respect to comprehensive knowledge of the field, methods, and equipment for teaching and study, and the personality of the teacher.

II. *The nature of history.* "The science of the development of men in their activity as social beings."—*Bernheim*.

III. *Tendencies of the past century toward the emphasis of social values.*

(1) The curricula of preparatory schools, about 1830-1850, show the chief emphasis in history to have been placed upon Grecian and Roman antiquities,—clearly a chronological record of rulers and wars appended to the study of the classical languages. American history received scant attention and its scope was confined to a brief consideration of the form of government and a chronicle of wars.

(2) Herbert Spencer, the English philosopher and writer, in his treatise on education, in 1860, says: "History should train for practical and civic duties, but as written it is valueless for guidance or for right principles of political action, and throws no light upon the science of society or the principles upon which national welfare depends or the problems of citizenship."

(3) The Committee of Ten of the National Educational Association, in 1892, assigned mental discipline the first place in history instruction, giving social and moral values a place of secondary importance.

(4) In 1899, the Committee of Seven, while placing much emphasis on disciplinary values, awarded the larger place to social and political values. On page 76 of the *Report* we find this statement: "History should be made real to him (the pupil) thru the study of the daily ordinary life of man, and he should be led to feel that only a very small portion of man's activities or strivings is expressed by legislatures, congresses, or cabinets; that, especially under a government such as ours,

the industrial conditions, the bodily needs, the social desires, the moral longings, of the people, determine ultimately, if not immediately, the character of the law and the nature of the government itself. We do not think, however, that economic or social facts should be emphasized at the expense of governmental or political facts." On page 75: "Slight notice should be taken of military campaigns in any portion of the study, etc."

(5) Professor C. O. Davis, of the University of Michigan, in his recent book, *High School Courses of Study*, gives most emphatic stress to social and closely allied values in historical study. (See page 41 and following pages.)

(6) In that admirable series of essays, *The New History*, published in 1914, Professor Robinson, of Columbia University, says: "The new history emphasizes the economic foundations and relations of society as the cause of political and other changes." "The history of man begins with his industries." "History should furnish lessons from the past of practical value for present needs—does it?" His answer is: "Very little; we are held by tradition without taking into account changed conditions. We view the present problems with obsolete emotions and attempt to settle them with obsolete reasoning."

(7) A growing social emphasis is shown by recent textbooks in elementary and high school history. As the textbook is the course of study, so far as most schools are concerned, the textbook emphasis represents, in large degree, the teaching emphasis.

- (i) General histories written before 1900: Swinton (1876), Adams (1886), Fisher (1896). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 20; political history, 50.8; military history, 29.1.
- (ii) Ancient histories written since 1900: Botsford (1912), Morey (1903), Myers (1913), Webster (1913), Westerman (1913). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 36.3; political history, 42.1; military history, 21.6.
- (iii) Medieval and modern histories written since 1900: Harding (1913), Myers (1904), West (1907). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 31.5; political history, 50.6; military history, 17.9.
- (iv) American history:
 - A. Eighth grade history (written before the newer tendency): Burton (1900). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 10.6; political history, 64.3; military history, 25.1.

B. Eighth grade history written more recently: Gordy (1905), Stephenson (1913). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 26.0; political history, 49.4; military history, 24.6.

C. High school history (written before the newer tendency): Johnston (1900), McLaughlin (1899). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 14.0; political history, 61.0; military history, 25.0.

D. High school history written more recently: Ashley (1912), Foreman (1914), McLaughlin (1913), James and Sanford (1909). Average percent of space devoted to—economic history, 30.7; political history, 48.0; military history, 21.3.

Summary of Topic III: From the above data, it is apparent that economic history has made decided gains since 1900 and that the political and military emphasis in our history texts is diminishing.

Whatever may have been the value of history in the past, its twentieth century emphasis should be clearly on the economic, industrial, and social relations of men. We are concerned with vital problems of today,—with problems of immigration, commerce, currency, pure foods, cost of living, intemperance, woman suffrage, labor, control of corporations, taxation, education, city improvement, social betterment, international peace, and a host of others, and with these a consideration of the political action best suited to their proper solution. Later-day historians no longer treat wars as the end of historical writing and human achievement but as a means to gaining economic and political ends.

IV. *Are these social values being realized in the history instruction in Indiana high schools?*

There are bright spots where current events, community civics, vocational information, economical and industrial problems, and important events of past ages of significance for present-day needs and interests are being considered; where teachers are experimenting with methods and subject-matter; where teachers are active in community life and are reading of social movements, until they have glimpsed the social viewpoint. But the vast bulk of history teaching is of mediocre or inferior quality and entirely lacking in social values; and as I see it, for the following reasons:

(1) Lack of teachers with adequate historical training. All too frequently history is considered of minor importance and is assigned indiscriminately to teachers of other subjects to fill in an extra period on the program. A recent survey of

teacher preparation in Kansas high schools illuminates the points in question. Of 485 teachers of history only 278, or 57 percent, had any preparation beyond high school courses in history; 207, or 43 percent, had no preparation, while 151 others not teaching history were prepared to do so, but had been shunted off into other fields of which they knew little or nothing. I doubt if these figures would vary materially for Indiana teachers of history.

(2) Lack of daily preparation for the lesson. The most common symptom here is the teacher wedded to the textbook. Laziness and indifference divide the field with "too many subjects" as the most fruitful causes of unpreparedness. During a ten-minute observation of an actual recitation, a teacher stopped three times to read as many paragraphs before she was able to formulate questions bearing upon the assignment for the day, and these questions when formulated were in terms of the words of the book, lacked aim, scope, and vitality. It is needless to add that the class recited no better than the teacher questioned and that the social values realized were decidedly negative.

(3) Lack of knowledge by teachers of what historical interests and experiences pupils have as a basis for historical instruction.

(4) Lack of equipment and lack of skill in using equipment when furnished. There is an over-use of words and too little use of maps, charts, globes, pictures, etc.

(5) Teachers establish too few connections between events studied and vital problems in present-day life. It would seem to be good pedagogy during the spring of 1915 to refer to our present neutrality problems in a class in American history considering the neutrality problems of the Adams administration. Yet during a thirty-minute observation on this topic the writer did not hear the present problem referred to by either pupils or teacher; when asked at the close of the recitation why he had not made the connection, the teacher confessed he had not thought of it.

(6) Most teachers do not vitalize their teaching, but make their classroom procedure formal, abstract, and lifeless. There is too much teaching of logically arranged subject-matter and too little consideration of pupils' interests and possibilities.

(7) Too many teachers are afflicted with what Professor Dewey characterizes as the "malady of thoroness." They lose

all sense of relative values and reduce every topic to the same monotonous level of memory for isolated facts.

(8) Lack of poise and inspiring personality mars the work of a considerable number of teachers of all subjects.

V. *Education, a means of conscious social evolution.* Until recently man's progress was largely a matter of chance and unconscious blundering. The Greeks had some notion of the progress they had made, but had no visions of the future and hence became stagnant and declined. The peoples of the Middle Ages and early modern times were too absorbed in speculations concerning a blissful hereafter to discover the secrets of development in terrestrial affairs. In twenty-five years Japan, as a result of conscious effort, rose from medieval impotence to world power. Germany has set for herself the goal of efficiency in all that pertains to human activity, and in the past half-century has come to surpass every other nation in military power, industrial organization, and social coöperation.

The United States is the world's greatest democracy—greatest in area, natural resources, and population—but both Switzerland and England instruct us in political democracy, and we go to Germany, with its military ideals, for lessons in economic, industrial, and social democracy. If we have any definite ideals as to social and civic policy, they are not clearly in evidence. In the past the chief social value resulting from history instruction in our public schools seems to have been the cultivation of a superficial patriotism.

The time seems opportune for a clearer and broader definition of aims and values in social and political affairs, and for the reorganization of the content of our social sciences and of our methods of teaching them in high schools so as to realize thru our educational system the ends thus consciously set up.

STANDARDS FOR COMMUNITY CIVICS

By D. W. HORTON,
Principal Mishawaka High School.

Civics as the science of civil government is *persona non grata* at present in live municipalities with fully socialized high schools. Governmental anatomy, constitutional dissection, abstract generalizations about unrelated and distant facts, dry dissertations upon the exclusive powers of the Senate, the revenue-originating powers of the House, the executive check

on the legislature, the interpretation of the Federal Constitution according to the aristocratic purpose of its founders—this sort of civics is soon to become an heirloom alongside its colleague, the history of dynasties, military campaigns, and constitutions. We are done with this abominable rubbish. Why? Because (1) we no longer believe in the study of civics for the exclusive purposes of mental discipline; (2) dry, abstract, foreign, unrelated facts will not produce the qualities of good citizenship; (3) the complex social, economic, and industrial urban life of today demands a new emphasis in civics teaching.

What is this new emphasis to be? Here is what various men who have studied the problem think about it. Wilcox in a recent book, says, "Progress has been made in many places toward vital instruction in civics in the schools, but the work is just begun. School civics still tends to instruction in forms of governmental organization, not to a vital understanding of the activities of government and its relation to life."¹ Dunn in the preface of his admirable little text on community civics says, "The function of the public school is to produce a good type of citizenship. There is no other sanction for the existence of the public school." Charles DeGarmo declares, "It is not so much a training in the technical machinery of government that the youth needs, as general intelligence and public spirit."² Municipal misrule is at once the shame and despair of democracy. It looks as if the people were permanently condemned to be the victims of chronic exploitive groups of political bandits. The remedy is a training in citizenship that fits the young by social intelligence, social disposition, and social efficiency to participate freely and effectively in political coöperation in all its manifold aspects. J. Lynn Barnard of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, makes this statement, "Civics is itself a life—a growth—a point of view—democracy in the making."³ Again he says, "The need for such training was never more urgent. One decade of rational civics teaching in our public schools, beginning with the home environment and reaching out into the wider problems of government, would put an end to boss rule in city, State, and

¹ Delos F. Wilcox, *Government by all the People*, 277.

² Charles DeGarmo, *Principles of Secondary Education*, I, 320.

³ J. Lynn Barnard, *N. E. A. Report*, 1913, 89.

nation.”⁴ Paul H. Hanus states that public education should train efficient citizens—men and women who recognize and appreciate the common interests of our democratic society.⁵ For this purpose he recommends a course in civics and vocational guidance. Such a course, he says, should comprise a survey of the industrial and commercial life of the city, with especial reference to types of vocations, and should deal also in a nonpolitical and concrete way with the problems of good city government.⁶

An excellent statement of this position is made by the chairman of the Committee on Social Studies, of the commission of the N. E. A. on the reorganization of secondary education: “Good citizenship should be the aim of the social studies of the high school. Facts, conditions, theories, and activities that do not contribute rather directly to the appreciation of methods of human betterment have no claim. Under this test the old civics, almost exclusively a study of government machinery, must give way to the new civics, a study of all manner of social efforts to improve mankind. It is not so important that the pupil know how the President is elected as that he shall understand the duties of the health officer in his community. The time formerly spent in the effort to understand the process of passing a law over the President’s veto is now to be more profitably used in the observation of the vocational resources of the community. In line with this emphasis the committee recommends that social studies in the high school shall include such topics as the following: community health, housing and homes, public recreation, good roads, community education, poverty and the care of the poor, crime and reform, family income, savings banks and life insurance, human rights versus property rights, impulsive action of mobs, the selfish conservatism of tradition, and public utilities.”⁷

We get still another angle on the question from Walter Weyl, who says, in essence, that the framework of our national, State, and local government is but a shadow democracy, a high-hung Utopia. Furthermore, he says that the Constitution is the political wisdom of dead America; it was

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁵ Paul H. Hanus, *School Efficiency*, 7.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 53.

⁷ United States Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1913, No. 41, p. 17.

in intention and in essence undemocratic. The greatest merit and the greatest defect of the Constitution is that it survived. It should have been recast every generation. Moreover, Weyl says, the real civic problems of today are denoted by the shrill political cries which fill the air. Men speak of sensational inequalities of wealth, insane extravagances, strident ostentation; and, in the same breath, of vast, boss-ridden cities, with wretched slums peopled by all the world, with pauperism, vice, crime, insanity, and degeneration rampant. We disregard, it is claimed, the life of our workmen. We muster women into dangerous factories. We enroll in our industrial army the anæmic children of the poor. We create hosts of unemployed men, whose sullen tramp ominously echoes thru the streets of our cities. Daily we read of the premature death of American babies; of the ravages of consumption and other diseases; of the jostling of blindly competing races in factory towns; of the breakdown of municipal government; of the collusion of politicians, petty thieves, and malefactors of great wealth; of the sharpening of class conflict; of the spread of hunger-born degeneration, voicing itself in unpunished crimes of violence; of the spread of social vice; and again he speaks of the stealing of governorships and legislatures; of the distributing of patronage; of all the frauds and tricks that go to make up practical politics.⁸ William D. Lewis, principal of the William Penn high school, Philadelphia, champion of the socialized high school, says our high schools should be developing an intelligent understanding of the meaning of our democratic government and social order, and an aggressive and efficient loyalty to public welfare.⁹

From these quotations, representing widely differing points of view, it is not difficult to reach the conclusion that the new emphasis demanded in civics teaching today is the subordination of the analysis of national and State government to a study of the real civic problems of the community. Community civics is the keynote in civics teaching today. Just what is implied by the term community civics? By community civics is meant the civic problems which directly affect the community, the matters which touch us vitally as individuals of a group from which we derive certain benefits and to which

⁸ Walter Weyl, *The New Democracy*, chaps. I-III.

⁹ William D. Lewis, *Proceedings of Indiana State Teachers' Association*, 1914, p. 49.

we owe definite allegiance. For some questions, the community may be the precinct, ward, or city group; for other matters the community may be the county group, the State group, or the national or even international group. If it be a question of a petition against a saloon, or the election of an honest alderman it is the ward group; if it be a question of pure and efficient water supply it is the city group; if a question of working prisoners with short-time sentences on the roads, the county is the community; if it be a problem of workmen's compensation, the State would be the community; if a problem of the control of patent medicines, food adulterations, or the importation and sale of opiates, the nation is the group; and if it be the question of laying mines in neutral waters we share concern and responsibility with the international group.

Take war, for instance. With our factories running half time or closed down altogether, with thousands of men out of employment, with the price of foodstuffs soaring, with the probability of a scarcity staring us in the face, is there any doubt that war is a community problem? War should be taught as a civic problem. But it should be taught in its reality. Our histories do not put war in the right light. The ghastly cost in life and money; the enormous economic destruction; the misery, famine, and poverty; where the burden falls; the awful after results, the crime and graft—these are neglected and the glories and virtues of it praised. We as a nation are egotistic and impulsive enough,—what we need is the sort of teaching which will build up some inhibitions against war. This much as a digression without violating neutrality.

Returning to community civics, it is clear from the foregoing illustrations that for some civic problems the nation may act for us as a community, just as in other instances the city acts as a group. It is perfectly obvious therefore that many civic problems which derive their importance to us from their local setting may reach thru county, State, and national government. Where this is true the problem should be studied in its various governmental relationships; nevertheless, if efficient citizenship is the test of civics teaching, any civic topic is of value solely because of its local and vital importance to the community.

James Bryce says, in essence, that people in a free government have failed to respond to the good of the whole, to the

general interest. He advances the following reasons for the failure of democratic government:

(1) *Lack of civic intelligence of issues and men.* People are ignorant of civic problems, they do not know what good paving is, a clean street, good city planning, proper and safe sewage, garbage disposal, city forestry, public sanitation. People do not understand the civic values of recreation thru playgrounds, parks, gymnasiums, and pools as contrasted to the commercialization of city amusements. There are no definite standards in the public mind for efficient police, fire, and health protection. People elect their public servants and tell them to "go to it." They have not the ability to check up, supervise, or direct them. As a consequence a public officer must be almost a chronic thief or "scalawag" before public opinion is aroused against him.

(2) *Indolence and slackness in civic duty.* There is the business man who would rather turn a dollar than go to the polls. Then there is the man who considers his civic duty performed when he has been to the polls. Some men just vegetate and cause problems. Mr. A, a good man in a city of ten thousand voters, decides he will stay at home on election day because of pressing business and because his vote amounts to only one ten-thousandth anyway; but suppose Mr. B, and Mr. C, and five hundred other good men do the same thing. There is the good man who runs up against the slick-oiled political machine, becomes apathetic, decides the whole thing is based on pull and too rotten to be trifled with. The remedy is to energize people by the formation of civic habits, organize clubs and societies, and instill civic interest.

(3) *The placing of the selfish and predatory interests of the small group above the public welfare.* Our civics text always starts out by saying that government originated with the clan, but generally fails to show that government is still rather clannish and tends to originate with the smaller group. The early clan had a double standard, and in that respect it was up to date. This is best shown by two columns of opposite attitudes, the first the intra-group virtues, and the second the extra-group virtues:

Intra-group Virtues

1. Mutual aid,
2. Fair-dealing,
3. Truthfulness,

Extra-group Virtues

1. Destruction,
2. Treachery,
3. Strategy,

4. Self-restraint,
5. Courtesy,
6. Submission,
7. Friendliness.

4. Unbridled freedom,
5. Incivility,
6. Courage,
7. Hostility.

The attitudes in the first column were virtues when exercised toward one of their own clan, and those in the second column virtues when used against a member of another clan; vice versa, the attitudes in the first column became vices when applied to one outside the clan, and those in the second column became vices when used toward one's fellow-clansman.

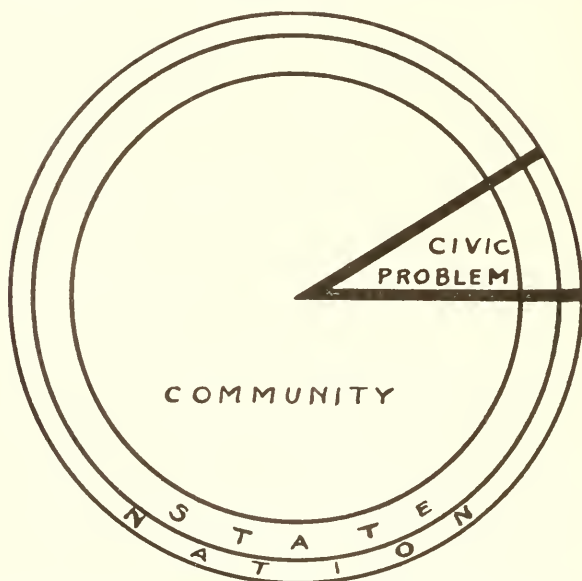
The extra-group virtues have not entirely disappeared and become vices yet. Corporations, industrial concerns, business men, economic and social groups, and politicians still exercise the extra-group attitudes against their competitors, opponents, and the people. The selfish interest of the small group is pitted against the public welfare, and all sorts of stratagems and treachery are used to befog the issue and throw dust in the eyes of the people. Each group has its own peculiar ethics, and small group consciousness. They always have their candidate, they are represented in the legislature, in the political convention, and in the newspapers.

4. *The party system of local government* is partly responsible for the inefficiency in free government. The party machine puts forth the argument of party loyalty. The force of party tradition is strong. Many vote the Democratic ticket in the city election because their grandfathers marched in an Andrew Jackson torch-light procession. Moreover, it requires some intelligence to vote, to fold the ticket correctly, and to split a ticket seems to require a degree of intelligence hardly reached yet by the average citizen. The result may be inefficiency in office, the raiding of the people's treasury by political bandits, the triumph of small group interests, pulls, rake-offs, license, and the stacking of the cards against the people.

I have endeavored to establish certain viewpoints and standards which will indicate the purpose, the subject-matter, and the method of a course in community civics. From the above causes of the inefficiency of free government we derive our aims: viz., (a) to give civic intelligence; (b) to energize, by the formation of the habits and the spirit of civic practice; (c) to enlist the sympathy of students in the public welfare and place it where it belongs, i.e., above the small group interests. These three aims would parallel the four main causes

taken from Bryce, because a study of the striving of democracy toward reform would be included in the first aim of giving civic intelligence.

Taking the three aims of civics teaching, how may these aims be realized, if they are possible of realization at all? I am thoroly convinced, after seeing it tried out, that this thing can be done. In Mishawaka we have taken the following measures to secure the above aims: (a) A tentative syllabus of community civic problems has been compiled for class use; (b) definite, practical, coöperative civic activities have been



undertaken; and (c) wherever possible in connection with a civic problem the public welfare has been contrasted to the selfish interests of the small groups.

The plan of this syllabus is to place the emphasis on community civics. If a topic is affected considerably by its relations to the State and national groups, these relations are included as a matter of course, but not as a matter of form. Civics should have no water-tight compartments. The logical organization of courses in the high school is giving way to the psychological. The high school is being socialized by the reorganization of courses according to the interests of the students and the social interests of the community. The emphasis and method of a course in community civics can be illustrated by

a diagram of concentric circles. The inner circle of large area represents local community interests; the area between the inner and second circumference, the interests of the State group; and the third and outer area, the interests of the national group. The study of any civic problem may be represented by the area of a sector, which may be conceived to originate at the center of the circles and proceed outward thru its various ranges of concentric interest. The boundary lines of the circles are of minimum importance and the boundaries of the sector of maximum importance.

The sources for the topics included in this syllabus are as follows: (a) the references and syllabi named in the bibliography to this paper; (b) the recent yearly programs for the public meetings of the Woman's Civic Club, the Men's Civic League, Chamber of Progress, and the Commercial Club, all civic organizations of Mishawaka; (c) questionnaires filled out by citizens representing all viewpoints of the community, viz., city officials, lawyers, doctors, ministers, school men, merchants, employers of labor, laborers, and tradesmen. This questionnaire reads as follows:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN: The civics class of the high school is making a study of community civics, that is, the civic problems of Mishawaka. State and national government is studied only as related to our own city problems and local interests. This has been recommended by civic leagues, civic and commercial clubs, and educators as being most helpful to the oncoming citizen and most valuable to the future city. The chief difficulty of a course of this sort is to find out just what are the civic problems of the city.

It would be obviously unfair to accept the views of any one particular person, and hence we are asking the opinions of men and women representing as wide a selection of views as possible. The answers to these questions will be tabulated by the civics teacher, and no one else will have access to the questionnaires.

We ask you to set down five or more civic problems which are related to Mishawaka in its past, present, or future progress, which are suitable and important enough to be studied in the civics class.

THE MISHAWAKA HIGH SCHOOL.

Each student in the civics class was required to deliver and collect five of these questionnaires. The problems suggested for study were then tabulated and set in the order of their importance as determined by their frequency. This syllabus is not recommended because it has reached a state of perfection. It is merely tentative, and subject to continuous reorganization.

Having disposed of the syllabus of topics for a course in community civics, I wish to call your attention to the definite, practical, coöperative civic activities undertaken for the purpose of forming habits of civic practice. First, let me call your attention to a number of mock affairs. Mock affairs do some good in that they give the form of participation at least, and in that respect are better than nothing. The nearer the mock situation approaches the actual practical standards of the outside world the higher the value of the results.

The class organized itself into a city council, legislature, woman's club, men's civics league, and chamber of progress, and transacted the customary business of those assemblies according to the usual rules of order in force at their meetings. This is a valuable sort of activity for a civics class, when planned and worked out carefully in advance, with a definite assignment of bills or ordinances for discussion at the meeting. The practical activities, however, have given by far the better response. The following practical civic activities have been decided upon as being most helpful: (1) Attendance at the public discussions of the women's civic club, the chamber of progress, and the men's civic league. (2) Attendance and report of the meetings of the city council where business interesting to the class is considered. (3) The study of the details of a case in court and a visit to the trial court. (4) A "swat-the-fly" campaign in which the class will coöperate with the civic organizations of the city, and besides present a film and lecture on "swatting the fly." (5) Attendance, report, and discussion of public lectures of a civic nature. (6) Organization of the civics class into the high school civics club as an auxiliary of the city civic clubs, with definite coöperative opportunities. (7) Distributing of charity at various times, and collecting a list of needy families. (8) Care and encouragement of birds in the city. (9) Spring clean-up. (10) Gardening of vacant lots. (11) Securing speakers on civic subjects for the auditorium assemblies of the high school. (12) Excursions to factories, the library, postoffice, city hall, gas plant, water works, electric plant, county courthouse, and the offices there, and trips of inspection of streets, lots, bridges, etc.

The civics class draws upon the public as much as possible. Most of the city officers are called upon to give talks to the class explaining their work; the lawyers, representatives,

newspaper men, and members and officers of the city civic organizations are drafted into service. The attitude toward this kind of work in Mishawaka is exceptionally enthusiastic. Almost all, without exception, seem very glad to give their time and services, and generally seem quite pleased to explain their work.

A. SYLLABUS ON COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

I. CITY GROWTH.

1. History of the growth of Mishawaka in relation to: (a) population, (b) public improvements, (c) industries, (d) institutions, (e) government, (f) civic problems.
2. City growth in general, showing: (a) statistics of rural and urban population, (b) change in social, economic, and industrial conditions incident to city growth.
3. Civic problems resulting from city growth, such as: (a) health and sanitation, (b) housing, (c) public utilities, (d) city insurance against fire, crime, etc., (e) sewerage, (f) paving, (g) recreation, (h) and other coöperative enterprises.

II. HEALTH AND PUBLIC SANITATION.

1. Health and physical efficiency is an economic and civic asset, and the city must protect the people from (a) loss of life by preventable diseases, (b) economic loss thru sickness from preventable causes, (c) relation of good health to physical efficiency and character.
2. Measures to secure public health, such as: (a) the ventilation of homes, public buildings, workrooms, and public conveyances, (b) smoke and noise nuisance, (c) plumbing, unsanitary out-buildings, sewage, (d) pure water, the wells, and an adequate supply of water for all purposes, stream protection, (e) pure food laws, inspection of food, markets, dairies, slaughter-houses, public eating-places, and ice-cream factories, (f) recreation facilities, gymnasium, playgrounds, athletic fields, (g) control of contagion, quarantine obedience, medical inspection in the schools, school nurses, vaccination, and prevention, (h) city cleanliness by means of public baths, garbage disposal, street cleaning, and care of waste paper, (i) proper lighting, heating, and inspection, (j) child labor, (k) "swat the fly" campaign, (l) vital statistics, (m) service of hospitals, and dispensaries.

III. RECREATION.

1. Recreation versus commercialized amusements is a problem of the city because of the (a) limited play space in open air, (b) monotonous factory or office work, (c) necessity to combat dangerous commercialized amusements, (d) need for physical efficiency, i.e., "recreation is re-creation."
2. Recreation may be of two kinds: (a) physical recreation demanded by certain classes of workers, such as recesses, play-

grounds, athletics, gymnasiums, public baths, and swimming-pools, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y.M. and Y.W.C.A., municipal dance-halls, gardens, (b) intellectual recreations are needed by many types of workers, viz., libraries, reading-rooms, concerts, lectures, studies, (c) recreation as mere relaxation or amusement, theaters, "movies," shows, dancing, etc.

IV. CIVIC BEAUTY.

1. Importance of the city beautiful as man's home; effect on the visitor, impression on the citizen, and economic effect on sale of property.
2. Items affecting civic beauty are (a) architecture of residences and business section, (b) lawn contests, (c) work of city forester, (d) streets cleaned, (e) vacant lots gardened, (f) clean-up day, (g) river front, (h) parks and drives, (i) smoke abatement, (j) elimination of bill-boards, (k) suppression of noise, (l) proper care of public buildings and lawns, (m) effect of the gateways to the city, depots, Lincoln Highway, etc.

V. CITY-PLANNING.

1. The human, economic, industrial, and efficiency values of city-planning, as applied to the plan of Mishawaka.
2. Study of well-planned cities like Washington, Paris, Vienna, and Philadelphia, showing grouping and arrangement of points of civic interest, approaches, ease of access and traffic.
3. Examples of poorly planned cities.
4. Application of the above facts to the civic plan of Mishawaka.

VI. PUBLIC UTILITIES.

1. Gas, electricity, street cars, telephone, railroads, express, banks.
2. Franchises—granting and taxing of, regulation, quality of service rendered, reasonableness of rates.

VII. GOVERNMENT AND CITY OWNED PUBLIC SERVICE ENTERPRISES.

1. Streets, Lincoln Highway, bridges, library, city hall, water supply, mail service, postal savings bank, parcels post—all operated in Mishawaka under government ownership.
2. Cost, quality of service rendered, and general principle of government ownership vs. privately owned public utilities.

VIII. CITY INSURANCE FOR THE PROTECTION OF LIFE AND PROPERTY.

1. Police system, fire department, accident prevention, "safety first" campaigns.
2. Assistance rendered by county, State, and nation thru officers, militia, army and navy, live-saving stations, lighthouses, etc.

IX. ORDER AND JUSTICE BY MEANS OF LAWS AND LAW ENFORCEMENT.

1. The government machinery for the making of (a) local ordinances, (b) State laws, (c) national laws, (d) international laws.
2. The governmental means of the enforcement of law—mayor and

police, county officers, governor and militia, federal officers, President and army and navy, international tribunals.

3. Courts, police, city, district, State, federal.

X. PUBLIC CHARITY AND CORRECTION.

1. Crime and reform, prison reform, juvenile courts, industrial schools, and penal farms.

2. Poverty and care of poor.

3. Care of defectives.

4. Unemployment problems, and agencies for their solution.

5. Workmen's compensation laws.

6. Age and service pensions.

7. Hospitals and outdoor relief (of all kinds).

8. Regulation of the liquor traffic, patent medicines, and sale of opiates.

XI. INDUSTRIES IN MISHAWAKA.

1. A classification of occupations and workers into the following groups: (*a*) unskilled or common laborers, (*b*) tradesmen or skilled workers, (*c*) clerical pursuits, (*d*) merchandizing and salesmanship, (*e*) managerial pursuits, (*f*) professional classes.

2. Cataloging of the industries, raw materials, products, classes of workers, factory systems, etc.

3. Study and survey of wages, hours, working conditions, industrial hygiene, opportunities for advancement, risks, and dangers, etc.

4. Other problems of labor and welfare of the worker in Mishawaka: (*a*) workmen's benefits, (*b*) clubs, (*c*) rest-rooms, (*d*) high cost of living, (*e*) standard of living, (*f*) recreation, (*g*) opportunities for enjoying life.

XII. PROGRAMS OF THE PRIVATE, SEMI-PUBLIC, AND CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS OF THE CITY.

1. The Associated Charities.

2. The Woman's Club.

3. The Men's Civics League.

4. The Mishawaka Chamber of Progress.

5. The Commercial Club.

6. Social program of the lodges, churches, social centers, and other organizations of the city.

XIII. CITY GOVERNMENT.

1. The Indiana plan for county government.

2. Reforms proposed for city government—commission form, nonpartisan election, city-manager system, budget, etc.

XIV. COUNTY GOVERNMENT.

1. The Indiana plan for county government.

2. Reforms proposed for government of the county: (*a*) short bal-

lot, (b) annual budget, (c) economy in purchase of county supplies, (d) nonpartisan elections, (e) civil service, (f) reform of county jails, (h) business manager system, (i) commission form of county government, (j) abolishment of the fee system, (k) State control of county asylums, (l) taxation reform.

XV. STATE GOVERNMENT.

1. Plan of the government of the State of Indiana; executive, legislative, and judicial.
2. Reforms in State government: need of a constitutional convention, to include up-to-date measures, such as initiative and referendum, reforms in county government, tax laws, election laws, and the form of city government, liquor traffic, recall, woman suffrage.

XVI. NATIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. The plan of national government; executive, legislative, and judicial.
2. Reforms under way; national issues; international relations.

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REALIZABLE EDUCATIONAL VALUES IN HISTORY

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This is an age of educational thinking. More particularly, it is an age of curriculum thinking. Teachers and patrons alike are realizing more than ever before not only that the program

of studies is the backbone of any school system, but that the wise administration of it constitutes one of the most difficult problems of school officials. Today tradition no longer serves as an adequate guide for curriculum making. Neither does mere individual opinion any longer suffice—even tho it be the opinion of those ranking high in the world of educational administration in general. Hence it is rapidly coming about that all keen, alert, and progressive educational supervisors and executives are scrutinizing their school systems, entering upon critical analyses of the formulated aims, means, and methods found therein, and seeking to make the results of the school efforts really commensurate with the needs of the recipients.

While of course this scientific approach is the ideal which today is set for nearly every phase of educational work, truth compels the acknowledgment that, as yet, realization of the hope is far from being attained in any quarter. Each group of analyzers and investigators is feeling its way slowly and each frankly declares that, for the most part, no absolutely solid ground has as yet been reached. Nevertheless, each twelve months shows advances that were scarcely to be dreamed of in the year previous.

As already implied, no phase of school work has recently received more critical and constructive analysis than has the program of studies, and of all the various subjects which compose the typical program of studies none is undergoing more thoro scrutiny and reorganization than is the subject of history. Not only are you educators of Indiana who are assembled here today making this the center of your thought and deliberations, but likewise we in Michigan are all astir about the matter and have at work this very hour at least three separate committees that are struggling with the same vexing problem. More than this, the National Educational Association has had for some months a rather large committee devoting its attention to the reorganization of secondary education, and not an inconsiderable portion of the time and efforts of this committee are being expended on the topic of history. In like manner the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has undertaken a study of a slightly different phase of this same subject and expects to be ready to make a tentative report at the annual meeting of the association next month in Chicago.

So we find ourselves in good company—indeed, in excellent company. Nevertheless, we who have an especial interest in historical studies are contemplating the various analyses and investigations of the subject with bated breath, hoping surely that the truly serious organic defects in the courses may be discovered and remedied, but also fearing, perchance, that some of our own particular pet hobbies and fancies respecting the organization and administration of the work may be black-listed or eradicated altogether. Nevertheless, I think we all clearly recognize the fact that the present arrangement and treatment of the subject of history—particularly in our high schools—is unsatisfactory. We, moreover, recognize that any further delay and postponement of a rather complete modification of the existing courses will doubtless result in a loss of prestige for the work, if not in a somewhat general abandonment of certain aspects of it altogether.

Hence it is that every sanely conducted experiment intended to test the wisdom and validity of newly advanced ideas respecting the work calls for hearty approval and co-operation on the part of all administrators. So also must critical analyses which are sympathetically undertaken be encouraged and given attention. Thus collectively and coöperatively setting themselves to the task will the history teachers and the administrators of school programs slowly and gradually work out together a more satisfactory regime in their field of labor.

The special topic for consideration this morning is Standards of Values in History and the administrative conclusions which logically follow from such data. Needless to say, I think, scientifically speaking, there are no such standards. In confessing this charge, however, permit me to remind you again that in this respect the subject of history is not one whit behind any of the other branches comprising the program of studies for secondary schools. Within each field some pioneer work has been started, but, I repeat, solid ground has not positively been reached in any department.

Perhaps one of the most stimulating general studies that has recently been made respecting curriculum planning is that of Professor Yocum. In his discussion entitled *Determinants of the Course of Study*, Mr. Yocum marshals some old ideas in a somewhat novel manner, and thereby re-emphasizes old principles and maxims, and compels renewed acceptance

of them by reason of the plausible way in which they are presented.

The fundamental thoughts of Yocum's analysis may be paraphrased thus: 1. Education consists of two elements, knowledge and power, or to employ Mr. Yocum's own words: "Education depends on (a) the retention of experience, and (b) the control of new experience thru activity which has been given continuity and dominance by the old." 2. Knowledge, as defined by Mr. Yocum, is an idea or activity in the *relationships* in which it is retained by the learners; while power is the resulting forms of self-activity which shape or control one's future experience.

By further analysis Mr. Yocum concludes that the *relationships* in which ideas or activities establish themselves are five in number (and only five). These are:

(1) As vague impressions, resulting in the course of time in permanent interests, tastes, ideals, and points of view.

(2) As single isolated or accidental relationships, resulting in the acquisition and mastery of words.

(3) As many-sided associations or relationships, resulting in an enhancement of the clearness and control of the old mental content, yielding thereby richer and more complete ideas, feelings, and volitions.

(4) As specific relationships, resulting in habits and system.

(5) As general relationships (the material for which is derived in but few instances and from a limited type of experiences) resulting in general power or applicability in other fields than the one from which the experience is obtained.

That is, Yocum regards the possibilities of education as including impressions, vocabularies, interconnections, habits, and applications, and concludes that the first, fourth, and fifth (i.e., impressions, habits, and applications) are today sadly neglected in most of our schools.

All this suggests Herbart's universally valid principles and, I repeat, is a formulation of familiar ideas clothed in the newer styles of the twentieth century. However, I have no quarrel with Mr. Yocum on his analysis. Indeed, I find myself, for the most part, in pretty complete accord with him. Nevertheless, it suits my purposes better, it is clearer to my type of mind, to approach the question of educational values largely from the standpoint of externally functioning qualities. I

choose to be somewhat more concrete and specific in my analyses, and to suggest, at least by way of illustration, how and in what respect values are realizable. Permit me, however, to acknowledge frankly (as I have already stated most sincere men in any field of educational investigation today are obliged to do) that I have no scientifically formulated data for what I have further to say, but that the ideas that I shall advance are the administrative formulations of some commonly accepted conclusions that have the support of many school men and educators and that commend themselves to my personal judgment.

On what, then, does educational value depend and of what does it consist? In answering this question let me, too, group the elements somewhat upon the kind, character, quality, and arrangement of the subject-matter itself. Without stopping at this point to discuss the topic, it seems reasonable, plausible, and in harmony with the accepted psychology of the day to affirm that no two subjects in the program of studies can possibly possess identical intrinsic educational values. Botany, for example, is different from Latin, and history is different from both. Hence, to repeat, the intrinsic character of the content itself is a very large determinant of the values that are realizable. Second, educational value of a subject is dependent upon the reaction or response which the individual makes to the ideas when they are presented. Mere passive indifference in class will never bring educational value of any significance to a pupil, even tho the subject-matter itself were as rich in mental, moral, and aesthetic problems as the mines of Ophir were full of gems, or the hives of Hymettus were full of honey. The wealth of the universe may be unseen and unsought or it may be exposed to clear view and be easily attainable, but so long as no personal effort is put forth to acquire it, only incidental benefits, to say the most, will be derived. Only to him to knocks will the gates be open; and he only who seeks shall find. In short, that idea is alone educative which (to employ again some familiar words of Herbart) "has completed the circle of thought,"—i.e., which has gone thru all aspects of the thinking process and has eventuated in modified action. These processes involve attitudes, modes of expression, habits, character, and individuality, and hence are seen to differ but slightly from Mr. Yocum's classification of relationships.

At least three recognizable and highly important corollaries follow from these two fundamental principles. These are:

(1) Personal reactions or responses to presentations of ideas will occur, provided the interest of the individual has been thoroly aroused and perpetuated.

(2) Interest will arise, mental life will quicken, curiosity and expectancy will develop, provided the educative material presented is closely related to the past experience of the youth who is being taught, is adapted to his stage of development, and can be seen by him to be capable of functioning in his own life,—either somewhat immediately or at least not too remotely.

(3) This comprehension by the pupil of the material that is being presented and this recognition of the possibility of having the acquisitions function in his own life will occur, provided (a) that the course is appropriately organized, i.e., that suitable material has been selected and appealingly arranged, and (b) that the teacher possesses such a knowledge of the subject to be taught, of the mental, emotional, volitional, and social qualities of the pupils to be educated, and of the arts of pedagogy that he may be able firmly to implant the idea in the first place, establish natural interconnections, suggest generalizations, and initiate (right in the classroom or at least directed from the classroom) ways and means of putting the newly acquired knowledge and powers into appropriate applications.

This, too, is good Herbartian doctrine. It is also, to my mind, good twentieth-century doctrine, for the essence of it is that education merely for the sake of education is obsolete, and indicates but a surviving strain of medievalism. It holds that the gaining of knowledge and power as ends in themselves is not one whit different in principle from the hoarding of gold or the unlimited acquisition of lands. Both practices are selfish, greedy, unsocial, antiprogressive, and despicable. Certain it is that any such training or instruction is utterly out of place in a system of schools supported by society at large in a democratic state. A truly democratic society taxes itself not that it may serve the individual for the sake of the individual only, but for the benefit which such individual training brings to the many.

But to get back. The contention has been made that edu-

cational value depends primarily upon the character of the response which a given individual puts forth when the chosen educational stimuli are presented. This response in turn depends upon the degree of interest which is aroused in the pupil; the amount of interest aroused is again determined by the completeness with which the pupil comprehends the subject-matter and such clearness of the functioning qualities contained will be realizable to the degree that the teacher is a master of the special field of knowledge presented, understands child and adolescent nature, is skilled in the arts of pedagogy, and knows somewhat intimately the dominant phases of our twentieth-century American life. Hence, in the final analysis, educational value is determined largely by the teacher, and a thoroly capable teacher could doubtless extract educational values for her pupils from any subject one might be pleased to name. Socrates, Jesus, Pestalozzi were men of this type. So occasionally are some few such teachers discovered in our own day. However, it is doubtful if even Socrates, Jesus, or Pestalozzi could have succeeded as they did had they been forced to follow any prescribed procedure. Each of these great teachers was unfettered by school systems, was responsible to none but his own self, and was driven forward by an unusual and indomitable personality. For us in the complex society of today, with our school systems refined in their organization and administration nearly to the *n*th power, even a great teacher—great, that is, by nature—could scarcely be able to realize his powers, were he to rely on his own knowledge and ideals alone. For the ninety and nine ordinary teachers, a conscious striving for teaching power is absolutely imperative. For ninety-nine percent of us at least, therefore, an analysis of the realizable educational values contained in the subject to be taught is highly important, for without a clear idea of what is possible of attainment good teaching is a mere chance circumstance.

Shorn, then, of all contributory factors, each school subject may be judged, with reference to its educational value, as follows:

- (1) A subject may possess auxiliary value, i.e., value in helping to get the full value from other school subjects. Thus, geometry possesses auxiliary value for the study of physics; history auxiliary value for the study of literature; and a foreign language auxiliary value for the study of the vernacular.

(2) A subject may possess practical or utilitarian value. By this expression is here meant the knowledge or power that can be utilized outside the schoolroom, immediately or later on, in gaining a livelihood or in adding to one's material advantages. Thus, hygiene, physics, English, manual training, and civics possess intrinsically varying degrees of practical values, depending on the person pursuing them, the purpose with which they are pursued, and the content and method employed.

(3) All subjects possess, in varying degrees, intellectual value, or the quality of developing the power to think. The training only is what is meant here by intellectual value, whether that training be specific or general; this classification does not take account of the value of the subject as knowledge. For example, the intellectual value of a subject is found in the extent to which it develops the following powers: (a) Observation, or the ability to take note of the details of an object or a situation. (b) Attention, or the ability to concentrate the mind upon the object, event, or process under consideration. (c) Perception, or the ability to interpret a present sensation by organized earlier experiences. (d) Analysis, or the ability to separate an entirety into its constituent parts. (e) Comparison, or the ability to bring different elements into common view. (f) Discrimination, or the ability to select essentials. (g) Imagination, or the ability to construct mental pictures. (h) Conception, or the ability to formulate general notions. (i) Association, or the ability to relate mental contents and processes. (j) Judgment, or the ability to formulate conclusions respecting two or more precepts or concepts. (k) Reason, or the ability to formulate a series of connected judgments. (l) Memory, or the ability to recall mental contents and processes once they have passed out of consciousness. (m) Expression in oral, written, and graphic forms. (n) Resourcefulness, or the power to meet a situation and to adapt means to ends.

(4) A subject may possess political and civic value. Such a subject fosters an interest in the institutions of the State and municipality, and inspires a feeling of loyalty to them. It also possesses the power of developing such qualities as civic pride, public spirit, civic consciousness, patriotism, re-

spect for law, and political responsiveness. The ideal sought thru such studies is good citizenship.

(5) A subject may possess social values, because it develops the power to make social adjustments with ease and readiness, and thus removes a source of social friction. Such an ideal does not ignore the value of individuality; it seeks rather the adjustment of individual traits to social ends. It includes the development of such personal qualities as toleration, sympathy, consideration for the rights and opinions of others, courtesy, graciousness, tactfulness, fairness, and co-operation. On the negative side the ideal may be expressed by the motto, "Live and let live"; on the positive side, by the Biblical conception of neighborliness.

(6) A subject may possess ethical value, that is, social value viewed from the standpoint of morality. This means the power to stimulate and develop those personal qualities which collectively constitute good character. These qualities include (among others): courage, temperance, chastity, honor, self-sacrifice, self-control, sagacity, accuracy, thoroughness, punctuality, forcefulness, industry, justice, benevolence, integrity, magnanimity, faithfulness, truthfulness.

The ideal to be sought under this caption of values expresses itself in the maxims, "To thine own self be true" and "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them."

(7) A subject may possess religious value. By this is meant the power to develop a spirit of reverence, devotion, and submissiveness to the Deity; faith, trust, and confidence in some phase of organized religion; and an acceptance of religious obligations, with a readiness to coöperate in religious undertakings and ceremonies.

(8) A subject may possess æsthetic value. This concept includes the idea of a power to stimulate a love for the beautiful in its various forms—material, intellectual, and spiritual—and a personal conformity to the accepted laws of good taste. The æsthetic appeal is chiefly to the emotional side of human nature, and involves an appreciation of the elements of material, color, arrangement, and proportion.

(9) A subject may possess conventional value, that is, the power to develop the graces, manners, and conventions that give standing in polite society. The value of such training lies in the fact that certain forms and standards of con-

duct are traditionally and conventionally expected of educated persons.

(10) A subject may possess cultural value (in the narrow meaning of the term). By this is meant the quality that directly and immediately satisfies, that finds its end chiefly, if not solely, in the pursuit of the subject for its own sake, or that prepares for the enjoyment of leisure. Such a value considers only the egoistic happiness or enjoyment of the individual acquiring it; seeks truth for truth's sake; or stops at the mere sentimental or intellectual interest aroused.

No one subject in the program of studies possesses notable educational value in all ten of the categories mentioned, or possesses the same degree of value in each of the several categories to which it belongs. Neither should each of the ten categories be accorded equal importance in evaluating the significance and worth of a subject. Even a small degree of social value, for example, may possibly much more than counterbalance a high degree of conventional value. Nor is it possible to assign exact numerical grades of value to any subject. With interest present (that is, aptitude and responsiveness in the pupils) it is possible, as already acknowledged, that any subject may yield values of worthy kinds and amounts; with interest lacking, it is doubtful if any subject yields true values for youths destined to become free men and women. The one alleged value that is sometimes extolled as characterizing the doing of uninteresting school work is the acquirement of habits of performing disagreeable tasks in general.

Granted that the fundamental element of character in any human being is sensitiveness to the demands of justice and duty and responsiveness to these calls, nevertheless, even here the end may not give sanction to the means employed to secure it. It is possible and altogether probable that these two elements of character may in some cases be purchased too dearly, and that, in securing them, other important forces may be undeveloped; while *per contra* certain undesirable mental, emotional, and volitional traits may be produced. Individuality and personality are too precious human attributes to be jeopardized by employing processes that tend seriously to stultify. There is no great virtue in blind, unintelligible habit. An education that is liberal tends to arouse and inspire, not unduly to repress and inhibit. Moreover, success in life cannot

be measured solely by objective appearances. There must be a fair balance between independent thinking and unquestioned acceptance of what others think.

While, therefore, the evaluation of school work in accordance with the ten categories above mentioned cannot be accurately obtained nor mathematically stated, nevertheless it conduces to clearness of thought and assists in formulating administrative policies, if the various subdivisions of history (as at present commonly made in our typical high schools) be analyzed with reference to each group of educational values, and the results recorded in terms of "high," "moderate," and "low." The following chart suggests the plan:

Subdivision of History	1 Auxiliary	2 Practical	3 Intellectual	4 Political and Civic	5 Social	6 Ethical	7 Religious	8 Aesthetic	9 Conventional	10 Cultural
Ancient										
Med. & Mod.										
English										
American										
Economics										
Civics										
Industrial & Commercial										

The limits of the hour do not permit of such a detailed analysis of each subdivision of history here today. The scheme is presented merely to stimulate others (if they see fit) to make more careful studies of the particular problems when leisure permits.

It is important, however, to inquire here, What is the specific purpose of history work in our high schools today? What are the positive aims which the various courses in history collectively seek to realize for our pupils? The answer, to my mind, is primarily this: namely, to help young people to

understand the origin, development, present organization and significance of existing social (i.e., human) institutions, agencies, beliefs, prejudices, customs, and aspirations, to the end that they may better adjust themselves to these forms and conditions, and hence secure for themselves individually greater contentment and happiness and for the world at large continued progress and prosperity. The primary aim of historical study is therefore (stated concisely) to help bring about social adjustments.

Undoubtedly this single aim could readily be resolved into a number of constituent aims, among which may be mentioned: (a) taste for historical reading; (b) interest in governmental affairs; (c) patriotism; (d) good citizenship; (e) toleration for the beliefs, aspirations, and modes of expression of others; (f) sympathy for the distressed; and (g) a background for interpreting social and personal actions. Without, therefore, seeking completeness in the analysis, let us attempt to evaluate the subject of history as a high school branch of study and then to deduce a few working administrative principles.

The values claimed for the courses in history in the high school include nearly all the values listed under the ten categories mentioned, and in each category the estimate of worth is usually placed as "high," or at least as "moderate." Thus, history is said to possess large auxiliary value, various kinds of intellectual value; a very high degree of social, political, ethical, and religious value; superior worth as a means to æsthetic appreciation; and notable importance in giving practical, conventional, and cultural training.

Considered with reference to auxiliary values, history is an important agent in unlocking the secrets of other departments of knowledge; it gives an interpretative basis for the pursuit of all branches of study; and is intimately correlated with English literature, the fine arts, ancient and modern foreign languages, and the sciences. For an adequate understanding of civil government and many current topics and events it is in the highest degree essential.

The twentieth century is distinctively historical in its mode of thought. In every department of school work, therefore, an historical approach is made. Historical facts give the background upon which to present in higher colors the special material of the particular course. No thoroly satisfactory

course in mathematics, for example, ignores entirely the history of mathematics, and the history of mathematics is again inseparably connected with general history. Hence the auxiliary value of history is high.

On the directly practical or utilitarian side the customary courses in history, as usually organized and presented in the high school, have little value, except for pupils who are destined for careers as teachers of history, writers, newspaper reporters, public speakers, lawyers, jurists, and diplomats. Nevertheless, they yield a fund of knowledge that tends to give a clearer insight into many daily tasks, and, if presented with reference to specific occupations, possess no inconsiderable practical worth for all. The courses in industrial and commercial history in particular yield goodly amounts of such values. So also do courses in the history of agriculture, the history of art and music, and the history of other special interests in so far as these courses are pursued by students qualified well to pursue them.

As a means of intellectual training, history yields a peculiar kind of discipline,—a discipline in dealing with human affairs and institutions. It deals preëminently with sequences in human affairs, and hence calls for the continued exercise of the powers of analysis respecting the causes and effects of feelings and motives of institutions and of conduct. It therefore trains the faculty of reasoning with reference to human affairs, and develops the tendency in pupils to follow the current of thought and action wherever it may lead. It likewise demands the employment of the powers of constructive imagination, comparison, and discrimination.

The student of history is forced to visualize past events, compare and contrast these with other events, deduce conclusions respecting principles of procedure, and foreshadow possible and probable conditions respecting the future. It demands that the student shall put himself back into the past; collect facts and combine them into their essential and definite relations; give attention to similarities and differences in motives, agents, means, processes, events, places, dates, and results; form judgments respecting the probability of the fact alleged, the efficiency of the means employed to adjust means to ends, the righteousness of the act, and the motives and ideals that dominated it; then, finally, deduce valid generalizations from the facts presented. The study of history there-

fore tends to produce the judicial mind,—the mind that impartially considers all the significant facts relating to a problem, scrutinizes them from various points of view, accords due validity to each group of elements, and forms its judgment in the light of the evidence. In short, since history deals with recurring problems in human life, the study of history develops those intellectual powers which best serve the pupil in solving contemporary social problems.

On the social, ethical, and political sides the values derivable from the study of history are incomparable in variety and strength. Accounts of the deeds of men and women who have struggled unselfishly and nobly have a charm for youth, fill it with aspirations to emulate the lives of those who have wrought benefits for their fellow-men, and inculcate faith and courage in striving to realize such aspirations. Again, history shows as no other subject of study does, that man is a gregarious animal and cannot successfully and happily live alone; it reveals the interdependence of men, and shows that while in union there is strength, in disunion there is weakness—possibly death. It extends the pupil's horizon, deepens his sympathies for his fellow-men, and tends to make him conscious of his social inheritance, privileges, and responsibilities. Hence it should inspire loyalty to the state and its institutions, and devotion to civic and political duties. It trains the individual to form a better estimate of the motives and actions of his associates, enables him to foreshadow his own probable attitudes and conduct under given conditions, and teaches him to shape his course of procedure in such a manner as to avoid unnecessary friction and strife. Moreover, it tends to give a broad, tolerant view of national traits and character and to break down provincialism, to reveal the relations and interdependence of one community with another and one nation with another nation, and hence tends to make international intercourse simpler, easier, and more permanent. The study of history likewise adds in interpreting many allusions in current conversation and writings; it makes the experiences of travel intelligible; it creates an interest in the resources, tools, and processes of one's vocation, and fosters pride and contentment with labor; and it explains racial, economic, religious, and social cleavages and prejudices and makes for a truer democracy of feeling and action. In short, the study of history makes individuals sensible of their social and political

obligations, and qualified and willing to work in harmony with their fellow-men.

Religiously, the study of history tends to give support to the faith that there is "a divinity that shapes our ends, rough hew them how we will." It reveals the fact that a ceaseless evolution is going on in the realm of intellectual and spiritual things as well as among material organisms, and that ideas alone are constant while forms and processes change. It teaches us, therefore, to see something of the intangible forces that override personal preferences and hinder the application of principles sincerely held.

Aesthetically considered, history stirs to an appreciation of the beauties of men's handwork in sculpture, architecture, painting, musical and literary form, industry and commerce; it reveals the beauties of human genius in adapting institutions and governmental forms and processes to desired ends; and it tends to develop the habit of personal response to the demands of order, beauty, and proportion.

As a subject valuable for the sake of pure culture, no branch of study takes higher rank than history. The student who has developed an interest in historical literature has inexhaustible resources on which he may draw for employment during leisure hours and for personal gratification in study and research; while he who has developed the art of writing historical accounts has a limitless field in which to work.

In brief, history is, *par excellence*, one of the most broadly social subjects in the program of studies. It deals with human motives and affairs; with human interests and conduct; and it ennobles human character, thought, and intercourse.

If the educational values of history are as varied in kind and as extensive in degree as the above paragraphs affirm, then assuredly none would deny that the subject deserves a place in the curriculum of every high school boy and girl. Unfortunately, however, as the secondary courses are organized and arranged at present, it is very doubtful (even with superior teaching) whether fully satisfactory results are being secured, at least, for many types of mind and for youths looking forward to vocational occupations immediately on completing the high school. Particularly unsatisfactory is the character of the work in history as it is found very commonly in our small high schools, situated in rural or quasi-rural communities. Indeed, the dulling effect of the history work here

is not infrequently almost criminal in its influences. Pupils are brought into classes under false pretenses. They enter with high expectations of receiving stimulating information and help, and drop out all along the way disheartened, discouraged, dissatisfied. And what is the cause? It is that the courses have been arranged to fit a logical scheme of administration and not, strictly speaking, the psychological condition of pupils. It is that the work has been for too long a time and to too large a degree planned and imposed by men brilliant, it may be, as historical scholars but woefully ignorant so far as boy and girl nature is concerned; knowing books intimately and thoroly, but knowing the practical life of the practical people of the practical twentieth century almost not at all; sensitive to the slightest misconception and misstatement of fact respecting the governmental and social ideals and practices of historical peoples, but unfamiliar and even indifferent to the similar interests that engage the common man and common woman in America today; facile with expositions concerning the scientific principles that should guide in the gathering and recording of historical data, but contemptuous of history as an art; extolling in exaggerated terms the virtue of knowing one's subject, but cynical, almost insulting, in his attitude toward a pedagogy of history.

I repeat, therefore, that, to my mind, the work of history in our public high schools—particularly in the high schools in our smaller towns and for the youths of no great literary ability—has fallen upon hard lines primarily because the choice of material, the arrangement of material, the relative emphasis placed *on* the material have been determined largely by the college ideal and by men who have not had (and by their very education and experience *cannot* have) an adequate conception of the pedagogical, the social, and the practical problems involved in the teaching of history in our democratic schools of today. In the scholar's love of thoroness, completeness, and mastery of a limited field of knowledge, historical details have been heaped upon details until the courses in the secondary schools have, in form at least, assumed the appearance of a university course. The typical college specialist who writes history for secondary schools, and the typical college specialist who instills into his students the ideal that to teach is but to secure the mastery of those details, is today the evil genius of the secondary school men. Not that

the special training of the university professor can be wholly disregarded, but that he shall add to his historical training a training in the theory and practice of teaching history in secondary schools. Failing in this, the demand is insistent that he turn over the determination of secondary work to the secondary school men themselves.

Needless to say, in specific terms, I think, that I personally am very much dissatisfied with much of the work in history in our secondary schools. It is altogether too abstract, remote, and pallid for our age and country.

If the premise I advanced some time ago be accepted as valid, namely, that the fundamental purpose of historical study in our secondary schools is to help young people to understand more clearly the origin, development, present organization, and significance of existing social (i.e., human) institutions, agencies, beliefs, prejudices, customs, and aspirations, then it needs must follow that a greater emphasis should be placed than heretofore on the study of the movements and conditions of the past which still are making their influences felt here in America today, and especially here in Indiana, and in the particular local community in Indiana in which the pupil is located. Moreover, I am in thoro accord with Dr. G. Stanley Hall's affirmation that the typical adolescent youth is so constituted physically, mentally, and temperamentally that it is unpedagogical, if not essentially immoral, for a teacher to seek to force him to *master*, during the secondary school period, the minute details of any subject or topic. What the pupil is really interested in and what he is really capable of doing and doing well is to pass somewhat rapidly over a wide range of topics, assimilating the grosser elements in each and leaving the refinements of detail to be sought out at a later time. Yocum has again expressed this thought clearly when he says: "A fallacious seeking after thoroness in the sense of exhaustive detail . . . has defeated its own purpose. . . . Even the crudest sort of pedagogical analysis reveals the utter weakness of a high school course that teaches . . . Greek and Roman history, or English and American history, in petty detail, in place of that general sequence of historical periods and epochs which assures the only unique contribution made by history to mental training."

All this means that the high school courses in history (as in any other subject) should include a large variety of topics

treated somewhat generally, i.e. not exhaustively, and should be vitally connected with the life interests of America today, and interpretable in the customary daily personal experiences of the pupils to whom the work is presented. Still further, inasmuch as it is a well known fact that a large percentage of our pupils in the public schools will not even complete the eighth grade, and that of those who enter the high school a large percentage will not complete the four years' work, it seems perfectly obvious that the courses in history both in the seventh and eighth grades and in the first and second year of the high school ought to be somewhat different either in content or emphasis or both from what is commonly found in these grades.

This thought, then, raises the whole question of the actual organization of the courses in history in the school. Why are they organized as they are, and what objections can be raised against the order of their presentation?

The serious teaching of history in elementary and secondary schools is, speaking generally, a relatively recent innovation. Indeed, it was not until after the famous Report of the Committee of Ten, published in 1893, that any widespread consideration was given the subject either by public school men or by educational theorists. A superficial course in the history of the United States had found a place in the upper grades of the elementary schools as early as 1840, or before, but it consisted chiefly of military history and sketches of the presidential administrations. About the same period a different course in ancient history was incorporated into the classical curriculum of some of the secondary schools. Occasionally, too, brief courses in general history and English history were offered to the nonclassical student. Still later a so-called review course in American history appeared in the high school, and in time grew to be the advanced course (not review course) which we know today.

With the gradual transformation of the public high school into a college preparatory school (an ideal that was not contemplated at its founding in 1821), with the prestige and dominance of the classical curriculum (course) within this school, with the formulation and passive acceptance of the absurd theory that whatever training constitutes the best preparation for college likewise constitutes the best preparation for all other careers in life, and finally with the renewed

emphasis of the collegiate notion that general courses of any kind are superficial and useless and that intensified courses are alone worth while, ancient history first crowded out general history from the various curricula, and then was expanded into two courses.

So it has happened that our history courses in the schools have come to consist of a formal (largely *memoriter*) study of United States history (with a little consideration of government) in the seventh and eighth grades, ancient history in the ninth grade, medieval and modern history in the tenth grade, English history (if four years' work are provided) in the eleventh grade, and United States history and civics in the twelfth grade. Furthermore, the work is precisely the same for all students who select it, or who are required to pursue it, and, more than that, is centered chiefly about government, laws, constitutions, and rulers.

If the test of values is: How has the work affected pupils outside of school, i.e., What do they read? About what do they converse? What interest do they show toward good government? To what extent do they coöperate with others?—if this be the test of school values, then it is to be feared that for very large numbers of eighth grade graduates history study has yielded little return. If the same tests be applied to the high school, similar conclusions must of necessity be drawn. The fact is that ancient history in particular, and to a less degree also, medieval and modern history, as now taught, lack interest for many pupils and therefore arouse few responses, and yield small value.

True, it is often held that the story of Greece and the story of Rome, dealing as each does with a single nation and tracing its development from conditions that are relatively simple and concrete, constitute the most fitting approach to the more complex social studies of our own land and people. Experience, however, seems not to justify this belief,—certainly not so far as the theory applies to all types of students. The events are so remote in time and place, the topics commonly treated are so unlike the topics of current interest today, and the attention to details is so emphasized and yet so devitalized, that ancient history for large numbers of students (tho certainly not all) is instead of being a joy and an inspiration, really a nightmare and a bore.

And yet Greece and Rome have contributed altogether too

many invaluable elements to civilization to be neglected entirely even by the individual whose systematic schooling can extend no further than high school graduation. But the essential contributions of Greece and Rome do not consist primarily nor conspicuously in their wars, nor their lists of rulers, nor their court debaucheries, nor their domestic quarrels. These nations have left their impress on time because of the principles which they originated, and the administrative policies which they inaugurated—principles and policies pertaining to democratic government, art, philosophy, religion, education, private property, and social relations in general. It is for these things that the modern world seeks to enter into the life of the past. Nor is it interested to any great degree in the events and facts of the ancients merely as events and facts, but cares decidedly more for the vivid picture of real conditions that prevailed, and the various movements—political, religious, educational, economic, and industrial—that were inaugurated and continued by them with a view to modifying these conditions.

In like manner the course in medieval and modern history or in English history which devotes page upon page of the textbook and class recitation after class recitation to the consideration of chronological tables of rulers, tedious details of wars and battles, still more tedious details of governmental practices and struggles, court intrigues and debaucheries, and other topics of no vital interest to the pupils,—these courses are coming under the ban of educational disapproval. Such detailed, exhaustive, and abstract studies are appropriate and right for the adult who already has acquired a wealth of personal experiences and who has a keen historical sense; they are wholly inappropriate and wrong for the immature, inexperienced youth who is seeking to find himself in the midst of contemporary social conditions and looks to the courses in history to assist him to do so. It is therefore pertinent and legitimate for parents to ask the school authorities what specific returns their sons and daughters may be expected to receive from pursuing the courses in history that are now commonly offered in the high school, and not a few conscientious superintendents, principals, and teachers are considerably at a loss to know how to answer the query honestly. In consequence they not infrequently seek to cover their confusion by reference to some vague idea about culture,—an answer

that satisfies neither father, son, nor teacher. Culture is not a mere acquisition: it is a functioning of experience. Nor can it exist where interest is lacking.

It is, therefore, clearly apparent that some form of reorganization of the work in history in the secondary schools is imperative. Moreover, it seems desirable that such reorganization shall conform somewhat closely to the following ideals and principles, namely:

(1) The choice of material to be taught in any given course shall be closely related to present-day interest and institutions.

(2) The psychological laws of procedure, i.e., from the particular to the general, the near to the more remote, and the concrete to the abstract, shall be observed.

(3) Completeness in the sense of exhaustiveness of details shall not be sought.

(4) Each course that is offered shall constitute a unity and not depend on the completion of other courses in order to yield fair values.

(5) The resources of the community, the previous historical training of the pupils in the high school, and the purposes which pupils have in attending school shall determine the number, order, and character of the history courses to be offered in any given system.

(6) Specialized courses in history are desirable for pupils pursuing specialized curricula.

Assuming that incidental instruction in historical topics has been given in the first six grades of school, and that such instruction has led out from the home, the school, and the community, the following outline of courses for the remaining six years of the school (from the seventh grade to the twelfth, inclusive) constitutes an ideal that seems feasible, practical, and wise.

In grade seven an historical survey of the world, obtained chiefly thru the study of biographies, should be acquired. Such studies might well contain (among many others) the events centering about the following: Moses, Abraham, Solomon, Confucius, Rameses, Cyrus, Homer, Socrates, Alexander, Cleopatra, Christ, Caesar, Mohammed, Charlemagne, Alfred, William the Conqueror, Luther, Elizabeth, Gustavus Adolphus, Napoleon, Washington, Victoria, Gladstone, Bismark, Garibaldi, Lincoln, Edison. While, of course, in conducting this

work, some attempt should be made to develop a systematic approach to history, still the ideal here is to inspire a love for historical study, and hence vividness of impression should constitute the chief consideration. The biographical plan lends itself to treatment in accordance with the general sequence of time and place, and it is doubtful if more than such incidental attempt at chronological study is wise at this early stage of schooling. An inter-connected, unified world-picture can come, and come only, with more mature years and with a re-survey of world events,—not once, but many times.

A course of the kind suggested ought to give a new stimulus to the work of the seventh grade, ought to be a means of retaining a larger percentage of the boys and girls in the school, and ought surely to yield a goodly number of the varied educational values to which reference has previously been made.

The history work of the eighth grade should undoubtedly continue to be, as at present, an elementary course in United States history. This year is destined to be the last year of systematic schooling ever secured by large numbers of pupils. These persons will step out from under the directive care of teachers and straightway will take their places as juvenile citizens of the State and nation. This year for them, therefore, will be the last year in which to have reimpresed upon them, thru the agency of the school, the ideals of the nation, State, and municipality. It will be the last opportunity they will have of gaining a systematic presentation of the governmental principles and institutions which American society holds so dear. For policies of state, therefore, if for no other reason, provision should be made at this time for the course in history mentioned. However, such a course should be radically changed in character from the course that is at present commonly given in this grade. Many topics now listed in the year's work should be omitted altogether. Many are too trivial, as for example accounts of insignificant explorations and Indian massacres. On the other hand, many are too difficult, such as topics relating to the niceties of our diplomatic relations, the establishment and conduct of national banks, and the conduct of our judicial system. But the most sweeping reform of all that is needed is the elimination of great masses of detailed facts pertaining to the truly worthy and legitimate topics that should be included in the course.

Such masses of unnecessary, indigestible, and uncorrelated details become merely a dead lift for the memory. Instead of really aiding in giving a true concept of the past, they tend to produce a blurred picture; instead of arousing and holding interest, they tend to check it. Facts, indeed, we must have and, oftentimes, detailed facts, for facts are the stuff out of which history is made, but trivial facts must not be permitted to usurp the places rightly accorded to salient facts.

It seems very desirable that much of the work of the eighth grade (just as in the seventh grade) should center about biographical studies. For example, the biographies of Columbus, DeSoto, Cortez, Magellan, Drake, Marquette, Pocahontas, Pontiac, and the long line of other notable men and women who have affected American history should constitute pivots about which to revolve significant related data. Besides biographies, much advantage will accrue from the use of topical studies dealing with the great connected movements and with the institutional development of our country. For illustration, themes such as: The Spaniards in America; The Jesuits; Religious Intolerance; Witchcraft; Territorial Growth of the Nation; Slavery; and scores of similar topics will enlist the active interest of many pupils in whom the formal, dissected, strictly chronological treatment will strike no thrill.

Undoubtedly much of the work of this grade should consist of supplementary readings and oral individual reports, and certainly vital correlations with geography should insistently be sought.

In the later weeks of the course the work may well be made to focus in an elementary way upon local history and particularly upon the larger features of local government. It should, moreover, contain an elementary study of the larger divisions of vocations which must necessarily engage the attention of all men and women today, the general qualifications desirable for entering upon the various groups of vocation, the general training needed for success in them, and the rewards that are apt to accrue to the person entering upon the work. Indeed, the course in history in the eighth grade should be really an introductory course in social science and, while incidental attention to vocations and vocational guidance should doubtless be given thru all the earlier grades of the system, nevertheless here some definite, systematic effort should be made to put pupils in conscious touch with the problems of

vocational careers and of the economic conditions into which they are about to enter. Surely no better approach to these all-important questions can be made than thru the work in history.

In the ninth grade, in place of the present course in ancient history, a course in the general history of Europe down to the middle of the eighteenth century would seemingly much better serve the ends sought. This course should then be supplemented in the tenth grade by a course in modern European history (since 1750). The objections to the existing courses in these two years have already been stated. As now organized they are altogether too difficult and too detailed to stimulate and hold the abiding interest of any but the exceptional pupils. The ages they depict seem so remote to the typical American boy and girl—especially the boy and girl whose earlier schooling has failed to give any clear conception of the measure and extent of time,—many of the topics treated seem so unrelated to the interests of today, and stress has so often been put upon facts and conditions that only an adult with the varied experience that comes with maturity could even fairly interpret and appreciate, that in not infrequent instances the pursuit of these courses has left really no analyzable value for the student, but on the contrary has repelled him completely and caused him to loathe historical writings of all kinds.

By organizing the history work of these two years into two more general courses than at present (as advocated above) the essential historical topics relating to English history can be incorporated and be appropriately fused with the continental questions with which many of them, at least, are indissolubly linked. In this manner not only can the history of England be given the proper subordination which belongs to it in elementary treatment in the high school, but the time that is now so often devoted to a detailed course in the separate subject can be saved and utilized to what seems to be much greater advantage.

Within the two courses as thus modified for the ninth and tenth grades the mode of treatment should follow, in general, the plan suggested elsewhere. That is, stress should be placed upon developing and impressing true, clearly defined, mental pictures of the real conditions under which society found itself, clearly comprehended conceptions of the fateful movements

which were undertaken to express their convictions and to realize their aspirations, and a fair appreciation and a well-formulated notion of the results from the undertakings,—results so far as the lives, institutions, and beliefs of the particular people themselves were concerned, and results likewise that have affected society subsequently. That is (to reiterate a much-employed thought again), facts and events, dates and locations, personages and titles, should be employed merely as the raw material out of which to build up a tightly woven, beautifully designed, permanently useful fabric of the past experiences of the race, and thereby permit the youth of today to stand on the shoulders of all previous generations! or, to change the figure of speech, to enable our youth of today to snatch the symbols from the past and to continue the relay race toward the ideals of progress. To do this, topics must be treated as entities, as unities, and must be developed from their genesis thru to their culmination. In other words, the controlling idea in history, as in science, is the idea of evolution. The purpose is to show how man, thru a series of efforts, has raised himself successfully from one plane of civilization to another, and a higher plane.

No doubt for the sake of aiding the secondary school pupil to knit the subdivisions of a course of this kind into a solidified whole, some kind of outline, syllabus, or textbook is essential. To grasp the events of history in this diversity and universality is the accomplishment only of the ripe historical scholar. Adolescents in the high school cannot be expected to attain this perfection, nor satisfactorily to approximate it with suggestions and helps from others. Here, then, is presented the greatest opportunity for the teacher,—to correlate, expound, illustrate, and apply,—and thru her analysis and summaries, her comparisons and generalizations, really to make past conditions appear before the pupils as a moving picture. General history of ancient, medieval, and modern Europe, organized after this pattern and presented after this plan, will, it seems to the speaker, break down the criticisms which today are so frequently made by pupils respecting these courses and really yield the educational values they are designed to yield and are capable of yielding.

In the eleventh grade it seems wise to introduce a relatively new phase of social science. During one semester a course in industrial and commercial history should be offered,—the

work to correlate specifically to the industries of the particular place in which the subject is taught; for example, in mining sections to emphasize the history of mining; in agricultural sections, the history of agriculture and horticulture; in manufacturing sections, the history of manufactures. In like manner the commercial side should, so far as possible, take into consideration the commercial forms of peculiar interest to the local community.

Supplementing the course in industrial and commercial history and yet organized so as to be independent of it, should be a course in elementary economics. Economic problems and economic discussions constitute so large an element in modern life, that no young man or woman whose education embraces that of a high school should be denied the opportunity of gaining some slight acquaintance with the principles, terms, theories, and processes that pertain to them. The ideal does not contemplate transplanting a university course into the junior year of the high school, but it does propose to give to the ninety percent of high school boys and girls who never will continue their schooling in a college a modicum of the advantage which the ten percent of students who will ultimately enter college will possess.

The two semestral courses thus advocated should yield distinctively practical value. Moreover, there is no reason why they cannot be made to yield all other values which any course in history can yield. The decade is fast waning that holds that to be practical is to be uncultural. Culture and serviceability are but the two sides of the same shield. Whichever one sees will depend on his point of view, but both sides can be seen if effort be made to observe them.

In the senior year a thoro, systematic course in American history and civics is probably firmly established in our policies,—and justly so. In this course the work should center chiefly about constitutional and political topics,—the events and movements that have produced the democracy of today. It should be the culminating course in point of completeness and importance as well as in point of order of all the history work in the secondary school. It should gather up the threads of all previously considered efforts at self-government and bind them together into a cable that shall tie the present to the past and the past to the present in an indissoluble manner.

Whether the work in history and in civics should be pursued concurrently or whether the two phases should be taken up serially in separate sub-courses may be a matter of personal preference and local convenience. Seemingly, however, greater advantage will be secured by following the latter policy. To be sure, many topics relating to the conduct of national civil government can best be considered and comprehended if discussed at the time the historical conditions which gave rise to them are discussed. And they should be thus taken up. Nevertheless, a more systematic study of these national questions in a course devoted entirely to government must tend to give greater mastery of the subject than can possibly be acquired in a course in which the existing forms and practices of government are given only incidental attention.

On the other hand, it is exceedingly doubtful if it is really worth while to stress the study of the subdivisions of our national government and the functions of each to the extent it has been our custom to do. Here again, as has already been pointed out in several instances, teachers have grossly erred in seeking after details. What profits it to the typical high school boy or girl if he or she is able to quote large portions of the Constitution of the United States, recites glibly the mode of electing Congressmen, and can name in order the particular persons who for the time being constitute the President's cabinet, if at the same time he is shamefully ignorant of the salient governmental forms and processes of his own State and community, is unfamiliar with the broader aspects of the civic problems that daily are affecting him, and is unstimulated and hence untrained to assume the various civic responsibilities that devolve upon everyone as citizens, and devolve upon him in a peculiar manner because of the enhanced opportunities he has enjoyed?

National politics must assuredly not be ignored entirely in a course in government, but State, county, township, municipal, village, and district governments touch the lives of our citizens one hundred times where the operations of the federal government touch it once. It seems reasonable, therefore, to urge that State and local civics shall be given precedence and emphasis in the instruction in government in our high schools. Such attention can best be provided in a course in civics that is separate and distinct from the courses in history but is built upon the history courses as a foundation.

This, then, by way of summary, is the character and order of the various courses in social science which, to the speaker, seem best suited to the needs of the general student in the seventh and eighth grades and the high school, namely:

Seventh Grade: Biographical World History.

Eighth Grade: Elementary U. S. History, Local History, and Vocational Guidance.

Ninth Grade: General History of Europe to 1750.

Tenth Grade: General History of Europe since 1750.

Eleventh Grade: Industrial and Commercial History (half course); Elementary Economics (half course).

Twelfth Grade: United States History (half course); Civics (half course).

In addition to these general courses designed chiefly for the general student, certain specialized courses in history may appropriately find places in the program of studies of some cities and towns. Among these courses may be mentioned the following:

Ancient History,
History of England,
History of France,
History of Germany,
History of Music,
History of Fine Arts and Architecture,
History of Education,
History of Particularized Vocations.

Which of the above special courses should be given in any particular school system (if any should be given at all) is for the school authorities conversant with local needs to determine. Probably, for few, will it be feasible or desirable to include any of them.

In conclusion, therefore, permit me to affirm that dogmatism has been farthest from my intent in what I have here presented. Undoubtedly there are those present who will object seriously to the claims I have made respecting the values of history, and particularly will they object to the schematic arrangement and content of the courses I have advocated. I have no quarrel with any such honest opponents. One of the important lessons to be learned from the study of history is that of tolerance,—a respect for the opinions and experiences of others. I trust that I have to a fair degree learned that lesson. Certainly few are entirely satisfied with the content, organization, and arrangement of the courses in history as we find them today in our high schools. I have endeavored to

give you in brief the principles and plans which to me indicate the general character of the reforms that are needed in respect to them. The four especially desirable changes which I wish particularly to reiterate are:

(1) Taking ancient history as such out of the ninth grade and transferring it (if given at all) to the twelfth grade and making it elective.

(2) Merging English history with the courses in general European history on one side and with the course in American history on the other, and thus gaining an additional year's time to which may be allotted half courses in industrial and commercial history and elementary economics.

(3) The elimination of needless details in the presentation of the work in all the courses, making the history work in the secondary schools really secondary school history and not university studies.

(4) Vitalizing all history work by relating it intimately to the lives and experiences of the boys and girls who are pursuing it, and to the current practices of society of today.

May I bring this address to a close, therefore, by quoting a few words from the introductory paragraphs of the New York syllabus in history for high schools? The thought there expressed accords thoroly with mine and may give support to the message that I have sought to bring to you. The syllabus reads in part as follows:

"The value of history to a student of high school age lies in the fact that it enables him to understand the world in which he is living, and develops in him a certain power to cope with present-day problems by virtue of the widened experience which history gives. In teaching the subject, therefore, the teacher should not lose sight of this aim, otherwise the study is likely to degenerate into the mere accumulation of facts of no relative importance to the students. A genetic treatment of history being desirable, whatever method may be employed, the unity of the human race should be kept in view. The acquisition of facts is mainly a memory exercise. The real value of history lies in the appreciation it gives of mankind as a whole and of the advance of civilization. All teaching should enable the student to draw conclusions from facts, considering such facts as means and not as ends. The study of natural conditions of religion, art, government, industrial, commercial, and social relations should be emphasized,

'because it furnishes the key to the history and dealing of a people'."

STANDARDS FOR JUDGING INSTRUCTION IN HISTORY

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"The efficiency of any profession depends in large measure upon the degree to which it becomes scientific. The profession of teaching will improve (1) as its members direct their daily work by the scientific spirit and methods, that is, by honest, open-minded consideration of facts, by freedom from superstitions, fancies, or unverified guesses, and (2) in proportion as the leaders in education direct their choices of methods by the results of scientific investigation rather than by general opinion."

Thus writes Thorndike in a memorable chapter on the "Scientific Study of Teaching."¹ Two elements in the situation have hitherto precluded the scientific study of history teaching. First, both historian and history teacher have been unduly absorbed in the fact or content side of history work. With both, the chief concern has been an extension or accumulation of historical information, an elucidation of fact and theory of historical movement. The consideration of effective presentation of history in schools has at best received only formal or perfunctory attention from all concerned. The study of history teaching in the scientific spirit, that is, by experimentation and accurate analysis and testing of results, has scarcely been attempted by students either of history or of education. Secondly, the historian and history teacher have directed speculative thought and practical demonstration to the scientific method as applied to the historical narrative, but have ignored the scientific method as applied to historical instruction. Scholars such as Bernheim, Langlois and Seignobos, Vincent, Fling, and many others have elaborated, illustrated, and applied the principles of historical science. No such writers have attempted to formulate in a scientific way the principles of historical teaching.

It is far from the purpose of the present writer to disparage the importance to the teacher of history of either full and

¹ *The Principles of Teaching*, by E. L. Thorndike, ch. xvi.

accurate knowledge of history, or of an understanding of the process by which the fund of knowledge has been accumulated; knowledge of history and understanding of historical method are both fundamental in effective teaching of the subject. We may go further and say that progress in the scientific study of history teaching will be conditioned both by full and definite knowledge of history and an adequate comprehension of the principles of historical method. To quote Professor Fling in this connection, "To teach history successfully one must know how to study history scientifically."²

But scientific method applied to historical writing and scientific method applied to historical instruction are widely different matters. The teacher of history who wishes to rise to the higher planes of efficiency needs not only to understand what the difference is but also to have a practical working experience in both processes. The former of these applications of scientific method to history has received marked attention from students and writers and has even been incorporated into college courses for the training of secondary teachers. Its claims and values have been presented in an able manner in the first paper this morning. But the latter use of scientific method in history has hardly claimed the serious attention of teachers themselves. Strangely enough, even courses for training history teachers scarcely recognize its transcendent importance. Yet the marked advance in recent years of the scientific study of education, particularly in the accurate analysis and measurement of the results of teaching, renders imperative upon history teachers careful study of the methods and results of their branch of the teaching craft.

The first step in the scientific analysis of teaching is the fixing of standards. One must first determine what are the desired results of his work before he can go far in testing or measuring these results. Clearly we must agree as to the results we wish to attain in history teaching before we can approximate a means of testing or a scale for measuring the results. This applies equally to the selection of subject material, and its organization and logical arrangement in a course of study, as to the methods of adapting the materials to the interests and capacities of children.

² *Outline of Historical Method*, by F. M. Fling, p. 15.

A clear exposition of the nature and scientific method of history has been given here this morning. Desirable standards for determining emphasis and measuring the worth of courses in history and civics have been set out in the subsequent papers. It remains to formulate standards for testing the quality of instruction in history.

In a recent book, Professor F. A. McMurry has indicated certain standards for judging instruction in the elementary schools.³ These standards he discovers from a consideration of the purposes of teaching. The immediate purpose of teaching, he thinks, is to impart knowledge and power and form the habits that determine a well-ordered life. "That is," he says, "we must look directly to the life about us to find what subject-matter the school should offer, and how this should be treated." The course of study will be good to the degree in which it contains problems that are socially vital and yet within the comprehension and appreciation of pupils; and the method of presenting the course will be good in proportion as it exemplifies the methods of solving problems found most effective by the world's most intelligent workers.

From a possible list of elements in daily living that are socially important, the author selects four which are universally desirable. These are (1) motive on the part of pupils, (2) consideration of values by pupils, (3) attention to organization by pupils, and (4) initiative on the part of pupils. These four factors in everyday life, because of their universality, "are particularly worthy as aims of instruction." They may be accepted as standards for judging the quality of instruction. That teaching is good, in the opinion of the author, which makes provision for these essential elements in daily living.

It would not perhaps be either difficult or highly instructive to show that these standards may be applied to history instruction in secondary schools. Doubtless, in the high school, as in elementary schools, some attention should be devoted to motivation in history work. Children and youth may profitably be encouraged to set up immediate and ultimate purposes in their daily study and reading of history. Added zest and interest in the subject may be aroused, for example, if the

³ *Elementary School Standards* (School Efficiency Series), by F. A. McMurry, pp. 3, 4, ch. ii.

suggestion is offered to a class in American history that it look into the part played by its own families in westward migration, or investigate the history of its respective churches of the locality, or discover the historic reasons for the prevailing division of opinion as to the desirability of extending Federal as against State authority. In each case, it is observed, the point for investigation serves to illustrate the general topic, and at the same time connects itself with some immediate interest relating to the lives of the children. A general purpose might be proposed, viz., to discover how many of the wars of a period might, in the opinion of the class, have been averted by arbitration, thus illustrating the efficacy or inefficacy of this mode of settling international difficulties.

No doubt some thought should be given to the training of boys and girls in estimating relative values in history work. Occasion for the exercise of the power of appraisal of values arises in almost every lesson; for example, in judging the relative importance of names, of dates, and of leaders. Some dates are to be learned and remembered for all time; others only for the lesson. Pupils should evaluate and pass judgment in the matter for themselves. Likewise, they should acquire the habit of judging relative values in analyzing the causes or forces in a movement, the terms of a treaty, or the policies of a party.

In history teaching in high schools, as in elementary schools, there are both necessity and occasion for organization of ideas by the pupils. In no subject are individual facts more overwhelming in number and variety. The only hope of the student and teacher is the careful grouping and systematizing of facts,—“tying them into bundles”—and this gives the needed training in organization. Logical and constructive outlining, arranging matter for a class report, marshaling evidence in support of a thesis, constitute training of the highest value.

Again, in history work, numerous occasions arise for fostering initiative on the part of pupils. They may be encouraged to express independent judgments, offer original points of view, and indicate their individual preference of leaders and personalities. They may and should place their own estimates upon the importance of historic movements. They may be directed and stimulated to do certain forms of constructive work in which individual initiative has full play. Of such

work, mention may be made of those exercises in which the pupil's knowledge is applied in concrete forms, e.g., the writing of historical letters, keeping historical diaries, composing historical dramas, and planning pageants, holding conventions and making treaties, impersonating historical characters, and participating in informal discussions, debates, and orations.

Thus we may, I believe, accept the general teaching standards as having application to history instruction. The point may well be raised that these standards for judging instruction have particular reference to the work of the elementary schools. They apply, moreover, equally with history to most or all other school subjects. The problem still remains to show the distinctive values claimed for history instruction in high schools, and to indicate acceptable standards for testing the quality of such instruction.

What are the desirable purposes of history teaching in high schools? What definite and distinctive types of mental training and habit formation does it afford? In answering this question, we need to take into account both the nature of history and the character of the social order in which the pupils are to live. For there is quite common agreement among those who have thought upon the matter that it is the unique task of history and its kindred subjects to train boys and girls for socially efficient living.

If we consider, then, the scientific nature and method of history, its theme of social evolution, and view also the complex and changing social order, with its ever-recurring problems of social adjustment, we may discover four kinds of worthy aims which may be claimed for history teaching in high schools. These are (1) concrete and objective thinking, (2) application of historic truth to social situations, (3) analysis and interpretation of historical phenomena, and (4) use of the historical judgment. These purposes may be accepted as desirable standards for judging the quality of the teaching of history in the secondary school. That is to say, the history instruction which makes careful provision for these important objects may be rated as good in quality, and that which neglects any or all should be set down as poor teaching.

Let us first consider the standard of concrete and objective teaching of history.

In a recent essay,⁴ President Eliot has pointed out in a convincing way the value of the concrete and practical in modern education. He raises the question why the inductive philosophy has proved "to have such a transforming power on the habits, manners, customs, government, religion, and whole life of any people that accepts it and puts it into practice." He then answers the question in substance as follows: The inductive method proceeds from the observation of the concrete and practical; it seeks the fact, it thinks little of the abstract or speculative; it does not rely on any kind of revelation. It studies the fact, the concrete object. It goes for the truth, the facts. Having observed the facts, it compares fact with fact, and fact group with fact group; and from the comparison it draws limited inference. Finally, it makes a careful record of all the observations, groupings, and inferences. Out of that inductive process have come, we may say without exaggeration, all the new ways of doing things, all modern industries, all the new freedoms, collective potencies, and social equalizations.

We have here suggested the supreme importance of inductive thinking in the teaching process. Not that any subject may be taught exclusively, or even chiefly, by the inductive method. History, more than all other subjects in the school curriculum, deals with generalized data. Investigation shows that almost every assertion of the historical writer, whether of textbook, monograph, or monumental work, is a more or less generalized formula. Nearly every thought or statement of the teacher or student in interpreting the generalized formula will be itself that of a general or concept truth. What, then, is the function of the particular and concrete in history teaching? Simply this: Every generalized formula or concept statement must be made intelligible to the immature mind of the child by means of appropriate detail. Facts, figures, illustrations, concrete instances, suggestive examples, should illuminate and render full of significance the general forms of statement in which the historical narrative of necessity abounds.

Our first standard, then, is that of concreteness. By this token that teaching of history is sound and good which pro-

⁴ *The Tendency to the Concrete and Practical in Modern Education*, by C. W. Eliot, pp. 7, 8.

vides for illustrative detail at every stage. This is something more than manipulation of material, and involves the cultivation of the habit on the part of pupils of thinking inductively, of passing from the particular to the general and from the general back to the particular. More valuable training for the duties of civic and social life cannot be conceived.

How is the teacher of history to use concrete illustration with potent effect? A few pointed instances may make the matter clear. Take the case of the indentured servant. What explanation of his social status both at home and in the colonies could surpass for clearness this sentence from the diary of a high grade redemptioner, dated January 26, 1774? "This day I, being reduced to the last shilling I had, was obliged to go to Virginia for four years as schoolmaster for Bedd, Board, and Washing, and five pounds during the whole time." The spirit and method of the owner of a fugitive slave is told with reality in the following notice taken from the *Carolina Centinel* (Newbern, N. C.) for August 18, 1818: "ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS REWARD. The subscriber, having legally outlawed his man Harry, offers the above reward for his head, or the same if delivered alive to me. Harry is a stout, well-made fellow, about five feet six inches high, small eyes, and an impudent look; he took with him when he absconded two coats, one grey and the other blue, and a homespun suit of winter clothes, together with some articles of clothing not recollected. The above-mentioned negro is legally outlawed. Fair-field, near Washington, N. C. John Y. Bonner." Again, take the case of the early dependence of the South upon the farmers of the Northwest for many of its food supplies. James and Sanford state the matter thus⁵: "The South was dependent upon the Northwest for large amounts of its food supplies." The following clipping from a Natchez (La.) newspaper dated October, 1826, supplies the needed detail: "Apples and Irish potatoes are good things. We have had good things in Natchez for the last week. Codfish and potatoes, with drawn potatoes and eggs; and apples raw, and apple-dumplings, and apple-pies, and baked apples; and roast potatoes, and potatoes boiled, and hash with potatoes in it,—besides fresh flour, and sundry other articles,—for which we are annually indebted to the father of waters (the Mississippi) and one of his older

⁵ Page 342.

boys (the Ohio River) ; all these things have presented themselves to our delighted palates within the last few days."

The pages of standard historians, of official reports, of newspapers, of diaries, letters, and journals abound in such concrete and highly illustrative material. All that is needed is that the enthusiastic teacher take the trouble to find it out.

Keatinge has an illuminating chapter on concrete illustration in history teaching.⁶ "The pupil must reason about matters which are concrete to him in every sense of the word," he says. Then he proceeds to give a case in point. A textbook formula runs, "The Statute of Mortmain checked the giving of lands to corporations which were unable to perform feudal service." How may this rather bald statement be made intelligible to boys and girls? "To introduce the personal element a little fiction is useful," Keatinge goes on interestingly. "We introduce two barons, each living on his own estate. Let them be called baron A and baron B. Let the estates be drawn upon the blackboard, and let each baron be domiciled in his own stronghold.

"On what tenure did they hold their estates? What duties or payments to the overlord did the feudal system bring with it?

"We revise some of the feudal incidents that suit our purpose: (1) wardship; (2) fine on the marriage of heiresses; (3) intestacy; (4) escheat for treason; and make it clear that it was from these and similar sources that the king's purse was filled, and that in this respect some barons must have been worth more to him than to others.

"We must now proceed to give a description of our two friends.

"Baron A is some thirty years old; he married young, and his two sons are of age; his two daughters have been married for some years; he is business-like, and has made all arrangements for the disposition of his property; he is extremely loyal. What are the king's chances of getting from this baron any of the fines mentioned above? Extremely small.

"Now consider baron B: he is forty-eight years old, a considerable age for this period, and is in poor health; he married late, and his eldest son is only fifteen years of age and of feeble constitution; he is unbusinesslike, and has probably

⁶ *Studies in the Teaching of History*, by M. W. Keatinge, ch. vi.

not made the necessary legal arrangements about his property; he has three unmarried daughters who may become heiresses; he is suspected of treasonable designs.

"What are the king's chances of getting fines from him? Very considerable. Such a baron must have been a godsend to an extravagant monarch. Which of these barons is of greater value to his lord in this respect? Obviously baron B.

"Baron B, as narrated, is in poor health. He was always of a religious disposition, and as he grows feebler he sees a good deal of the neighboring abbot. Finally, regardless of the interest of his children, he makes over the whole of his property to the monastery on his estate. What will the king get from the monastery on the counts mentioned above? Nothing whatever. It must be made clear to the class that there will be no orphan sons, no heiresses, no intestacy, for a corporation cannot die; no escheat for treason, for monks do not rebel.

"If, then, many barons imitate B, what is the result to the king? Poverty; no pocket-money. How can he prevent this? Evidently by forbidding the alienation of land to corporations of this kind.

"The statement of the Statute of Mortmain can now follow. Its abstract nature has vanished."

The illustration suggests another resource of the teacher in concrete demonstration. This is the use of objective methods for massing detail. The employment of blackboard, of diagram, picture, map, model, relic, what not, belongs to the category of inductive teaching.

A second aim of historical instruction having social significance and value is the utilization of historical knowledge, or its application to social situations. A crying need in everyday life is the ability to utilize in practical situations what one has learned in the school. A distressing weakness in modern school practice is the lack of opportunity to use what one has learned. Children are worked overtime in accumulating information which there is little or no chance to apply. In history this fault of teaching is greatly accentuated. Exercises for putting to the test one's knowledge of history seem scant enough. In arithmetic or algebra, the mastery of the process is accompanied by countless examples or practical exercises for testing out the thoroness of knowledge. So in language study, in manual work, in grammar, composition, the natural sciences. Only in history do we have an endless learning of new matter

with rarely an occasion to use or apply what has been learned.

Yet if one looks carefully into the matter a surprisingly large number of ways of applying historical knowledge offer themselves. Countless instances of similarity between conditions in past ages and those of modern times are easily discoverable. Herein is available one great resource of the history teacher in training pupils to make application of historical truth. Analogous conditions may be discovered, comparisons established, and differences noted. A few illustrations may help us here. When in 264 B.C. the Roman Republic, at the opening of the first Punic War, sent its legions into Sicily and embarked upon a career of external expansion, a situation arose, strikingly similar to that which faced the American Republic, when in 1898 its victorious fleet seized the Philippine Islands. Much was made by anti-imperialists of the similarity at the time. The high school student of Roman history should see the similarity of conditions and point out the elements of difference. In this fashion, the pupils make vital and effective use of their knowledge of affairs in the Roman Republic in the third century B.C. Again, the social and economic crisis in Italy in 133 B.C. was not unlike that in this country in 1912. Once more, the Roman system of land administration—its title in the state, its scheme of survey, its distribution to the settler—closely resembles that introduced into the new American Republic shortly after independence was established.

In American history and civics, applications of historical knowledge may often be made to State and local conditions. Reference has already been made to westward migration between 1815 and 1840. Understanding of the general movement may be tested by applying it to the settlement of the State of Indiana. On the background of the larger movement, the pupils may see how the current poured into the State during these years, first from the upland regions of the South, then near the end of the period from the middle and eastern sections of the country. All the elements are here, the inducements to settlers, the modes of acquiring land, of laying out towns in the wilderness, of opening roads and other means of communication. One may even narrow the study to the locality, for scarcely a community was not affected in some degree by this movement. In similar fashion, the study of the larger aspects in the nation of any of the following questions may

be applied to the State: State aid of turnpikes, canals, and railroads; State banks and banking; slavery extension; demand for cheap money; growth of cities and decay of rural life; and so on.

Another type of application of historical knowledge is that made to historical situations, real or imagined. Let us select a few examples of application to imaginary situations. A useful exercise is the writing of letters and diaries or journals. A few days ago the writer asked a senior class in high school to use what they had talked over about the transforming results upon the nation of the "Second War of Independence," by writing one of the following exercises under date of February 1, 1815: a letter from Henry Clay, a page from the diary of John Quincy Adams, a supposed speech of Calhoun in the House, or an editorial for *Niles' Weekly Register*. The value of the exercise may be judged from the following samples:

A NEW AMERICA

(An imaginary review [editorial] from *Niles' Register* under date of February 1, 1815.)

The direct effects of the late war, viewed economically, politically, and socially, are of such nature as will be the foundation of a wonderful era of prosperity in this country.

Although it seems but a short time since the commissioners of both nations met at Ghent for purposes of peace, the majority of Americans, since that memorable day of December 24, 1814, when the treaty was signed, have had a strong feeling of national consciousness, and have seen with a clear vision that the nation has a future such as no European power can disturb.

England's refusal to stop seizing our sailors on board American vessels and forcing them into her service paved the way for a war, that war in which this country in the end convinced Great Britain that our rights must be respected the same as any other nation's rights.

Our military operations, although far from successful on land, have shown foreign nations that any attempt to establish themselves on the territory of the United States is likely to meet with effective resistance.

It is true that the war has been a costly one for us. It has cost us thirty thousand lives and a hundred million dollars, but with the strength and confidence of a new government at our command, and under the unfaltering patriotism of American citizens, we have made the way clear for successful commercial and industrial enterprises.

We have entered into terms of peace with England. May these terms never again be broken, and may the "Era of Prosperity and Good Feeling" continue unto future generations.

A PAGE FROM THE DIARY OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

(February 1, 1815.)

There are three things which stand uppermost in my mind that have been accomplished in regard to foreign affairs since the treaty of 1783. These things are: (1) the purchase of Louisiana, (2) the interposition of the Czar in behalf of our commerce in 1809, and (3) the treaty with Great Britain which was consummated at Ghent about a month ago. Though doubtless many of my countrymen will be disappointed in its provisions, yet I believe this is one of the greatest treaties this country may ever hope to contract. It severs, I firmly believe, all our bonds of custom with England. The treaty of 1783 did not entirely cancel our most intimate relations with the mother country. We yet were dependent upon her, politically, commercially, industrially; we were proud of our lineage in her. England, I believe, has never lost her ambition to control us in our commercial and industrial life. She has regarded us only as a dependent,—never as a world power. Constant violation of our rights on her part has shown us that. This semi-independence would seriously retard American progress in time. This war is but a completion of the Revolution. And it is God we must thank for its fortunate outcome, for I fear America should not have fared so well had not her opponent's forces been divided. I anticipate this second independence—this real independence—will open a vast field for expansion in many lines in America.

The above lines were penned by a high school girl. Whether she has correctly interpreted the spirit of the classic diarist of the second era of American independence, I leave to my hearers to judge. Let us turn to a letter written by a boy in the same class.

A LETTER FROM HENRY CLAY TO JOHN C. CALHOUN

Ghent, The Netherlands, February 1, 1815.

John C. Calhoun, M.C.,

Washington, D. C., U. S. A.

Dear Sir: By the time this epistle reaches you the treaty, which our commission, after much delay, succeeded in wresting from the British commissioners, will perhaps have been ratified or rejected by the Senate. I trust the former will be the case.

Although the treaty does not provide for the abolition of those outrages by which we were driven to war, yet the respect for our nation, which the memory of our victorious commands will enhance, will doubtless prevent their repetition. The Orders in Council have been repealed and I am confident that with Napoleon's downfall, which must come shortly, interference with our trade and impressment of our seamen will cease.

As desirable as was war and honor three years ago, much more to be desired today is peace, if it can be obtained without dishonor. Recent reports from the various States, telling of the distress due to our

blockaded ports and interrupted commerce, have so alarmed the commission that even I, whom Randolph called a "war hawk," am willing to accept a treaty which guarantees peace alone. I sincerely hope that you have not or will not use your influence to defeat its ratification or to embarrass its drafters.

Mr. Adams has returned to Russia to resume his post. The remainder of the commission, Messrs. Bayard, Gallatin, Russell, and myself, are awaiting word of the Senate's action before returning home.

Your fellow-countryman,

H. CLAY.

So much for applications of history in imaginary situations. Applications to real historical conditions may be made by means of the written thesis. A fairly definite and not too difficult or complex problem is stated. The student sets to work in a spirit of inquiry. If in an advanced class, he should find most of his materials, place an estimate upon their value, and arrange the facts in logical sequence in support of his thesis. Questions such as the following are appropriate: Were William of Normandy's claims to the throne of England valid? Was the Norman Conquest a good thing or a bad thing for England? Had Frederick I or the Italian communes the better right in their struggle? What connection was there between the rise of universities and the spread of heresy in the twelfth and the thirteenth centuries? Was Cromwell an ambitious usurper or a sincere patriot? Was Jackson justified in his distrust of the Bank? Such questions require the marshaling of evidence, the balancing of opinion, and a final decision. In all these processes there is both opportunity and necessity of putting to the test the knowledge gained in daily class work.

Still another mode of applying what one has learned in history is the use of debate or discussion. Both should be employed in history, however, with some care and discrimination, for not all historical questions are debatable. Questions which the race has settled for all time should not be introduced in debate. Such are the rightfulness of slavery, the inequality of women, the efficacy of religious persecution. Questions which the nation has permanently decided, or which are no longer pertinent, may not be profitably discussed. Such, for example, are the right of nullification or of secession, the right of territorial acquisition, the right to build railroads and canals at Federal expense. But aside from these limitations on his-

torical debate, there still remains a host of living issues, of controversial matters, which are legitimate material for debate or discussion. The relative validity of claims by pope and council, the merits in the contest between Philip IV and Boniface, the justification of the colonial revolt from England, the justice of the Mexican War, the desirability of maintaining the Monroe Doctrine, are a few of the many such questions for discussion or debate. This form of application is of special usefulness in civics or economics.

Yet another way of applying historical truth is found in the study of current history. The survival in our day of historical issues, institutions, and movements are surprisingly numerous. The perennial Monroe Doctrine finds new application and interpretation in almost every international complication relating to the Americas. The question of papal authority in Catholic countries is by no means dead. Disputes growing out of the union of church and state crop out in many civilized countries at the present day. Clashes of colonial rivalry, of commercial interests, of race antagonisms, have come down to us from the days of Rome and Carthage. In the study of history in the making, we have excellent means of applying what has been learned in history classes, and at the same time of illuminating the understanding of contemporary life thru history.

Our second important criterion for judging historical instruction is, then, the utilization of historical knowledge. By this token, the history instruction which makes provision for some daily application of what has happened is sound and good. On the other hand, the teaching which is concerned solely with acquisition of knowledge is by the same token weak and poor.

A third element in historical teaching is interpretative power. One of the chief aims in teaching history is training in the analysis of social phenomena. This is sometimes called "historical thinking." What is involved in historical thinking? The habit or power of thinking of social phenomena dynamically, i.e. as evolving from early and simple stages to more complex; of viewing them in historical perspective, that is, in their real relation to the times in which they fall or to the historical movement to which they belong; of analyzing social situations into their simpler elements, revealing their causal forces and resulting influences.

The importance of such training for daily living needs no demonstration. The simple duties of everyday life, the elementary activities of citizenship, require accurate perception of causal forces in human relationships, some sense of historical perspective, and some knowledge of the stages by which the present has come to be what it is.

Interpretative power in historical teaching is a third criterion. The teaching which trains in this power by daily instruction is good. That which ignores or neglects it, and seeks only accumulation of fact, is poor.

A fourth element in history instruction is historical judgment, i.e. judgment based wholly upon tested sources of information.

The value in daily living of this kind of judgment is beyond estimation. Nothing is more common among children and uncultivated persons than the proneness to accept at face value the statements of others, without checking up misinformation, without testing for possible error or intentional falsification. If the statement is one printed in a book, the tendency is greatly accentuated. Reverence for the printed page is well nigh instinctive in man.

But what is the remedy for all this? The remedy, or better the prophylactic, is some elementary training in historical criticism. Pupils in grammar grades and high schools should be given some exercise in testing the sources of information. They should discover from concrete examples how difficult a matter it is for anyone to tell the absolute truth. They should become familiar with various kinds of error, with the forms of historical bias. They should thru the study of original accounts observe the influence upon men's minds of different forms of prejudice,—racial, sectional, political, religious, class, what not. They should learn thru history study to apply some of the simpler criteria for accuracy and sincerity. In these ways, they may be fortified against error and falsehood.

But how to proceed. One may begin with cases of conflicting testimony in different accounts. Perhaps the most common as well as the simplest is the conflicting report of what has occurred which appears daily in the newspapers. Rival newspapers, or competing news agencies, frequently carry highly contradictory accounts of happenings or opposing interpretations of public policies. Under proper direction, even children may readily discover the errors and point out the

reasons for overstatement in one case or suppression of details in another. A familiar case at present is found in the conflicting official reports from the war zone. A brief consideration of modern methods of military censorship and of control of means of transmission of reports will cast some light upon our problem and form an interesting and suggestive beginning of critical studies.

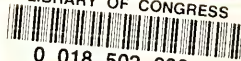
Again, attention of pupils may easily be directed to conflicting or contradictory statements in reference books of the simpler sort. Even textbooks often reveal in places sectional pride or bias in the authors. Indeed, high school students often speak of such contradictions and ask for the explanation. Here is the teacher's opportunity to awaken interest in historical criticism.

Lastly, there is the resource of study of documentary extracts for evidences and causes of error. Into this time does not permit that we should go in detail. But a portion of a speech of Demosthenes, a letter of Queen Elizabeth, a sermon by Latimer, may serve to reveal the hidden play of motive, the influence of circumstance or opinion of the writer. Such studies have untold value for the sort of training which may be claimed as distinctive for history.

Our final standard, then, is the use of the historical judgment. The good teacher will make due provision for this training, and the poor one will ignore one of the most important kinds of cultivation which may be claimed for history.

In conclusion, and by way of summary, the standards by which the teacher may judge his or her own work in history will be not only the general teaching standards of motivation, organization, evaluation, and initiative, but the more distinctly characteristic standards which we have elaborated, viz., concrete and objective teaching, application of historical truth to social and historical situations, analysis and interpretation of social phenomena, and the use of historical judgment. The writer is convinced that the approximation of these criteria by teachers of history in secondary schools will not only make history a more vital subject for children and youth, but will also be of material aid in making historical teaching one of the most important elements in training and equipment for the practical duties of daily living.

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